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ABSTRACT

K-12 social studies teachers in all states can use the readings and exercises in this handbook. It can also be used in pre- and in-service teacher education. The first of six sections discusses social studies' history and goals, laws and regulations in North Dakota, and the new social studies. Materials and services available from the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction are discussed in the second section. The third section presents background information, discussion questions, and teacher exercises on the unit, thematic, learning center, contract, inquiry, and inter-disciplinary approaches. Section 4 suggests student projects for oral history, reading in the content areas, mainstreaming, games about North Dakota, original student research, and global studies. The fifth section discusses concepts in social science disciplines. Questions for discussion and teacher exercises and activities are also included. Evaluation is the topic of the last section. The appendices contain the National Council for the Social Studies guidelines, statements concerning the essentials of education, a multi-ethnic education checklist, and information on North Dakota government and state institutions. (RM)

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A Handbook for Teaching

Social Studies

in

North Dakota Schools

Edited by
Lowell Thompson and Norm Machart

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Lowell Thompson and Norm Machart, Editors

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SOCIAL STUDIES: AN OVERVIEW

- A Brief History
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- Laws and Regulations
- The New Social Studies

North Dakota Landscapes by Deb Erickson

Social Studies Education: A Brief History

The main purpose of this section is to briefly trace the developmental trends that have occurred in social studies education on a global, national and statewide scope, and to indicate how various domestic and foreign occurrences have dictated, at least to some extent, the directions of programing for social studies education over the years.

Most authorities today recogn ze "citizenship education" as being the bottom line or central theme of any social studies program. This concept can be traced back to about the year 3000 B. C. However, the term social studies may not have appeared until it was introduced by the British in about 1884.

> Social studies was interpreted then to mean the very practical concern of social scientists and other social reformers with such problems among others, as working conditions, relief for the poor and health and sanitation.[1]

During the 1880's and 1890's in our own country, social scientists were also thinking in terms of the concept of the "betterment of society." In order to bring this about, the social scientists thought that a more "simplified" effort needed to be made in order to bring social science findings to the school classrooms. It was felt that it should be a general education for all children who would eventually be molded into American society. The people who were really concerned about change toward more of a model for problem-solving were not the historians and geographers.

> The people who conceived of a decision-making, problem-solving curriculum were not the teachers of history and geography, but rather the reformers, social workers, and sociologists who were concerned with the quality of American life.[2]

In 1899, the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association made some significant recommendations which resulted in: (1) history gaining the dominant position in the secondary school social studies curriculum and (2) the identification of the need for social studies education in teacher preservice programs. This committee also recommended that social studies be a part of the elementary school as well, a proposition that was endorsed as early as 1892, by the NEA.

Another step forward came in 1916, when the Committee on Social Studies, which was one of ten subject area subcommittees of the NEA's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, recommended that the main purpose of social studies was in developing effective citizens. From this effort came the traditional ninth grade course in civics and the twelfth grade problems of democracy course. In looking back on these developments, one can see the importance of these changes on our curriculum today.

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[1]James L. Barth, "Early Foundations of the Social Studies," Social Studies Teacher, Volume II, No. 4, p. 4.

[2]James L. Barth, "Foundations of Social Studies," Social Studies Teacher, Volume I, No. 3, p. 3.

> Some have gone so far as to claim that nothing has substantially changed since these early pronouncements. This is a questionable judgement, however, in view of the many influential curriculum movements that have appeared in the intervening years.[3]

By the 1930's, when the American Historical Association's Commission on Social Studies in the Schools met, there was great optimism over the voluminous reports that were submitted. However, much of the detail was lost and it all boiled down to a few generalized statements.

> ...its curriculum pronouncements were confined to such generalities as "the development of rich and many-sided personalities" and the building of American society "in accordance with American ideal of popular democracy, personal liberty, and dignity."[4]

With the Great Depression came an emphasis on problem solving (inquiry) and intercultural education. The "tough times" called for some innovative means by which to counteract a multitude of social and economic problems in this country.

A movement for international education followed the end of World War II, as did the need for economic education. These two movements continue to be quite strong today. Along with these, the period of "McCarthyism" appeared to be an influence in our change to a greater emphasis on citizenship education, with a heavy political orientation that changed social studies curriculum in the fifties.

The structure of social studies has changed mostly because of the various changes that have taken place in our country. The attitudes of the people of the nation, state and local community are definitely reflected in the social studies curriculum of our schools, and this will continue to be the case in the future. This kind of flexibility is necessary in order to meet the pressing needs and demands of a free society.

Over the years, our schools have moved back-and-forth between the varying styles, methods and approaches in teaching social studies. Some of those include exposition vs. inquiry, traditional vs. conceptual, and a separate subject format vs. a unified approach. Social studies curriculum development and planning is complicated as educators strive to meet the needs of a society that is in a continual state of transition.

Some trends in North Dakota at the present time include (1) a change from the unified social studies to separate subjects in elementary social studies and (2) more "back to the basics" and less conceptual-type textbooks. State social studies guides have changed also. During the 40's and 50's, the guides were comprehensive (all subjects in one). This began to change in the early 60's, when separate guides for each subject began to be prepared. Today, every area has its own guide. Much work has also been done on preparation of "North Dakota Studies" materials for use in the elementary schools.

In summing up the history of social studies, attention should be given to some of the main concerns of those involved with social studies education. Some of these concerns include (1) the formation of concepts and structure, (2) a redesign and restructuring of scope and sequence, (3) emphasis upon the world around us and with current issues, (4) use of strategies for skill development,

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[3]Jack Allen, "Assessing Recent Developments in the Social Studies, The Social Studies Curriculum." Social Education 31 (February, 1967), p. 33.

[4]Ibid., p. 34.

(5) an attempt to utilize the many resources available (multi-media), (6) improvement of pre-service and in-service training programs, (7) an interest in values and how they are handled, (8) a greater concern for the theories existing in child development and (9) a new look at how we evaluate our programs and re-design our curriculum to meet the needs of today's society.

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Allen, Jack. "Assessing Recent Developments in the Social Studies, The Social Studies Curriculum." Social Education 31 (February, 1967), pp. 33, 34, 99-103.

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Major Goals of Social Studies Education

The major goal of social studies education is simply, "education for effective citizenship." Support for effective citizenship as the central purpose of social studies can be seen in the following statement from the state social studies guide (Social Studies for North Dakota Schools, Department of Public Instruction, Bismarck, ND).

> ...We must offer education that prepares our children to participate in the society of man, that enables them to serve their fellowman and to objectively evaluate men and their motivations. We must offer an education that allows each child to grow and discover himself, to clarify values and establish allegiances, to think reflectively, inquire intellectually, solve systematically and question rationally.

What is also clear from the preceeding statement is that the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction, through the guidelines, gives support to the notion that social studies education should focus on both "product and process." The product of social studies education in this case being the knowledge students must possess to be capable of participating in society, and the process being that which has come to be known as "Inquiry" (i.e. discover, clarify, think, question, etc.).

Equally clear withing the guidelines established by the Department of Public Instruction is that the teaching of social studies is no simple task. The goals of social studies, according to the guidelines...

> cannot be achieved by memorization of names and dates, nor can it be motivated by isolated lectures--no matter how brilliant or well conceived. It can never result from locked portals which admit no current issues, fanatics who use the lectern as a soapbox or pendants who teach pages instead of processes . . . Only when we discard the daily regiment of repetitious teaching methods, only when we urge our students to ask "why" and then seek their own answers, only when

we go beyond pat statements to the truths that lie beneath; only then can we give our North Dakota children a social education to complement and enrich their environmental, familial and situational advantages.

The National Council for the Social Studies also supports a broadly based social studies program which focuses on effective citizenship. In a policy statement published in Social Education (April, 1979) the National Council held that:

> The basic goal of social studies education is to prepare young people to be humane, rational, participating citizens in world that is becoming increasingly interdependent. The enhancement of human dignity through learning and commitment to rational processes as principal means of attaining that end are concerns shared with other disciplines. The other institutions of society also share with the schools a powerful influence upon the civic education of the young. Social studies education provides the only structured school or community focus for the preparation of citizens. A commitment to foster human dignity and rational process are key to the structure of the social studies curriculum.

Later in the same year (November, 1979) the National Council for the Social Studies joined several other professional organizations including ASCD, NAESP, IRA, NCTE and NSTA in calling for a commitment to a balanced education based on belief that..."the overarching goal of education is to develop informed thinking citizens capable of participating in both domestic and world affairs. In the same statement, the five professional organizations called for rejection of the "simplistic solutions" offered by those espousing a movement to "minimal competencies, survival skills or back to the basics."

In addition to the statements supportive of "effective citizenship" by the National Council for the Social Studies and the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction, the Office of National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) spent a number of years in developing a series of objectives that support citizenship as the central thread of social studies education. These objectives developed by NAEP have since been adopted by the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction and are reported in another section of this publication. These objectives are broken down in one set of objectives that relate specifically to citizenship. The next national assessment, scheduled for 1981-82, will assess the skills of students and young adults in both areas (citizenship and social studies).

Discussion Questions

1. How do you interpret the statement that refers to "Inquiry" as a process?
2. Whether curriculum experiences for students should be "product oriented" or "process oriented" has been a question that has occupied thoughtful educators for some time. What is your position on this question?
3. In what way do both sets of objectives developed by NAEP support citizenship as the central purpose of social studies education?

Suggested Activity for Preservice Teachers

While there is considerable consensus concerning the position that the

development of citizenship is the central purpose of social studies, there is less concensus on what this actually means in terms of what students should learn in school to prepare themselves to be good citizens. It might be interesting to brainstorm, in small groups or as a whole class activity, a list of skills, attitudes and knowledge students should learn in social studies classes to prepare themselves to be "effective citizens." After the list is developed the class might want to rank the five to ten most important items from the list.

Laws Relating to Teaching Social Studies in North Dakota Schools

Did you know it's "A LAW" that teachers in North Dakota must:
* PROVIDE MORAL INSTRUCTION? (15-38-10, North Dakota Century Code)
* TEACH THE IMPORTANCE OF TEMPERANCE on the third Friday of January each year? (Article VIII, Section 149, Constitution of North Dakota and North Dakota Century Code, 15-38-05)
* PLEDGE ALLEGIANCE TO THE FLAG as part of the daily schedule in Grade 1-6?

Most of the laws, rules, regulations and guidelines for teaching social studies in North Dakota schools are more general than the ones cited above and, in fact, place most of the responsibility to the development of curriculum and implementation of instruction at the local level. It is probably true that the state of North Dakota gives much greater freedom to local schools than does nearly any other of the states. In spite of this, it's probably important that as a prospective or inservice teacher you have at least an awareness of laws, guidelines, etc. that relate to the teaching of social studies in the state of North Dakota. Most of these laws or guidelines are summarized or quoted directly in the materials that follow:

Elementary Curriculum

Each student, each day, should have a planned experience in social studies that would contribute to one or more of the stated objectives for social studies and citizenship education. The Pledge of Allegiance to the flag shall be part of the daily schedule. (Social Studies for North Dakota Schools, Department of Public Instruction)

Middle School or Junior High Curriculum

American Studies I and II (two units) are required, but the local schools will determine the specific elements of content and the variety of learning experiences to include.

During the two-year period, the student should be given an opportunity to study many facets of North Dakota history and geography. He should also begin studies in the development of United States which may be continued in any grade, 9-12. Refer to the chapter on Developing the Local Curriculum for organizational models. (Social Studies for North Dakota Schools)

High School Curriculum

Three units of social studies will be required of all students for grad-

uation. The statutes relating to the study of the U. S. Constitution and the North Dakota State Constitution require 81 hours of instruction at some point between the start of the seventh and end of the twelfth grade. Such study could be provided by a one semester government course emphasizing the constitutions or by concentrated mini-courses included for two or more years.

The remainder of the social studies curriculum will be developed by the faculty and students of each school and may be composed of a variety of learning experiences developed through courses, mini-courses, independent study, and seminars. A number of elective courses, normally one semester in length and of increasing sophistication, should be available for senior high school students. The decision as to the specific courses to be offered should take into account the preparation of teachers and the presence of other community resources. Refer to the chapter on "Developing the Local Curriculum" for suggested secondary electives. (Social Studies for North Dakota Schools)

Teaching of Temperance

The North Dakota State Constitution provides that "...instruction shall be given as far as practicable in those branches of knowledge that tend to impress upon the mind the vital importance of truthfulness, temperance, purity, public spirit, and respect for honest labor of every kind." (Article VIII, Section 149, Constitution of North Dakota) The North Dakota Century Code (15-38-05) also requires that each school must offer at least one hour of instruction and appropriate exercises on temperance on the third Friday in January of each year.

Study of the State and National Constitutions

Students in the upper six grades (7-12) must receive a minimum of 81 hours of instruction on the constitution of the state of North Dakota and the Constutution of the United States at some point or points during the six years of instruction. (15-38-08 and 15-47-37 North Dakota Century Code)

Moral Instruction

Each teacher must provide moral instruction tending to impress upon the minds of pupils the importance of truthfulness, temperance, purity, public spirit, patriotism, international peace, respect for honest labor, obedience to parents, and deference to old age. (15-38-10 North Dakota Century Code)

Conservation

Instruction on conservation of natural resources including irrigation and conservation of water and soil must be included in all public schools. (15-47-24 North Dakota Century Code)

History, Geography and Government

All students must be taught spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic, language, English grammar, geography, United States history, civil government, nature studies, elements of agriculture, and physiology and hygiene, especially concerning alcohol and drugs and the major treatment and prevention of tuberculosis and other infectious diseases. (15-38-07 North Dakota Century Code)

Course Content

The content of all high school courses and the grade at which the courses are taught shall conform to the state courses of study. (15-41-07 North Dakota Century Code)

Course Length

All credit courses at the secondary level shall be taught for a minimum of 120 hours except for natural science or other laboratory courses which must be taught for a minimum of 160 hours. The suggested weekly time allotment for the teaching of social studies in grades 1-6 is approximately 140 minutes in grade 1, 160 minutes in grade 2, 200 minutes in grade 3, 250 minutes in grade 4, 275 minutes in grade 5, and 275 minutes in grade 6. (A Guide for Curriculum Planning, Department of Public Instruction, 1977)

Social Studies Objectives

Social studies teachers in the state of North Dakota are expected to provide instruction that would contribute to the following general objectives: (Social Studies for North Dakota Schools, Department of Public Instruction)

1. Students should have a certain curiosity about human affairs. They should raise questions, seek answers, be open to new ideas and information and they should try to understand why other people think and act as they do.
2. Students should be able to use the analytic-scientific procedures effectively including the ability to identify and define problems, formulate generalizations and hypothesis, obtain information from a variety of sources, distinguish fact from opinion, identify reliable and unreliable sources, detect errors in logic, and to be able to use data and evaluate criteria to make decisions.
3. Students should be sensitive to the intuitive-creative methods of explaining the human condition. They should read and gain insight into human affairs from history, philosophy, fiction, and other forms of art. They should also understand the role of creative-intuitive methods in scientific inquiry.
4. Students should have knowledge relevant to the major ideas and concerns of social scientists, including the distinctive modes of inquiry and concepts from the fields of sociology, economics, geography, history, and government.
5. Students should have a reasoned commitment to the values that sustain a free society. They should believe in the fundamental worth of the individual, the freedoms of the first amendment, the rule of law, and in the open opportunity for advancement. They should also be willing to act in the general interest and participate in decision making process.

It should be pointed out that although the general objectives listed above apply to students in K-12, the depth of understanding expected of a high school student is, of course, much higher than would be expected of an elementary student.

Citizenship Objectives

In addition to the general social studies objectives, teachers are also expected to provide instruction and experiences that would contribute to the following citizenship objectives: (Social Studies for North Dakota Schools, Department of Public Instruction)

1. Show concern for the welfare and dignity of others

2. Support the rights and freedoms of all individuals
3. Help maintain law and order
4. Know the main structure and function of our government
5. Seek community improvement through active democratic participation
6. Understand problems of international relations
7. Support rationality in communications, thought and action on social issues
8. Take responsibility for own personal development and obligations
9. Help and respect their own families

Social Studies Concepts and Generalizations

The specific concepts and generalizations that students should develop in a K-12 program include (Social Studies for North Dakota Schools, Department of Public Instruction)

Anthropology: culture, evolution, family, invention, language
Economics: factors of production, market economy, money, specialization
Geography: area association, diffusion, spatial distribution, spatial interaction
History: change and effect, change, historical method, values, and beliefs
Political Science: change and stability, citizenship, decision making, government, ideologies, interdependence, power and authority, values
Psychology: learning and maturation, personality, social needs, stability, uniqueness, values
Sociology: change, culture, disorganization, group, institutions, interaction, norms, population, social class

Course Descriptions-secondary

The North Dakota Department of Public Instruction's Guide to Curriculum Planning (3rd edition) provides a brief description of all courses approved at the secondary level. The following information is taken directly from that publication.

ANTHROPOLOGY 15010

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2, or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of anthropology
PURPOSE: To provide students a broader view of civilization than normally treated in history courses. CONTENT: Orgin of man, relation of man and culture, ongoing cultural development, varieties of physical, social, and cultural elements of civilization. EMPHASIS: Existing societies (Comparative Cultures), special cultural elements (World Religions), specific time periods (Stone-Age Man), or general principles (Anthropology).

AREA STUDIES 15020

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies
PURPOSE: To allow students an indepth view of an area of the world of special interest. CONTENT: Selected area may vary from as small as a neighborhood to as large as a continent. Normally area studies are made of areas currently affecting U. S. foreign policy or of special local interest (e.g. home of an exchange student, etc.). EMPHASIS: Multidisciplinary and therefore involving all social sciences.

CITIZENSHIP 15030

LEVEL: 9 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies
PURPOSE: To provide students detailed instruction on the mechanics of performing citizen functions. CONTENT: Portions of social sciences such as practical government, sociology, and political science which assist the student in developing understanding and attitudes conducive to participating as a citizen. EMPHASIS: Practical and relevant--theory should be left to government or political science courses.

CONSUMER EDUCATION 15050

LEVEL: 11-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2, or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies
PURPOSE: To provide students with information on jobs, incomes, and expenditures in normal adult life. CONTENT: Choosing careers, choice of school versus careers, budgeting, background on taxes, insurance, credit buying, installment loans, and personal expenditure. EMPHASIS: Income and expenditure statistics in North Dakota.
SPECIAL NOTE: Special guide available from Department of Public Instruction for this course.

ECONOMICS 15060

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2, or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of economics
PURPOSE: To provide students with basic economic concepts and understanding of a market economy. CONTENT: Map's use of limited resources, interrelationship of goods and services with wants. EMPHASIS: May be a case study of a complete business operation (Business Economics), a comparative study of various economic systems (Comparative Economics), an analysis from the consumer's point of view (Consumer Economics), or an examination of economic theory (Principles of Economics).

COOPERATIVE MARKETING 15069

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with one course in cooperative marketing
PURPOSE: To provide students with knowledge about consumer cooperatives.
CONTENT: Problems involved with the movement of goods from the producer to the consumer. Cooperative marketing as a possible solution to these problems. Includes both cooperative marketing and consumer's cooperatives.
EMPHASIS: Cooperative marketing of agricultural products.

GEOGRAPHY 15070

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2 or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of geography
PURPOSE: To build and develop students' geographic skills. CONTENT: Spatial relations and processes and their impact on human activities ("why things are when they are"). EMPHASIS: May be concerned with geological development (historical geography), with humans and their activities (cultural geography), with global supply and demand (economic geography), with physical and biotic

WORLD HISTORY 15089

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2, or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of world history
PURPOSE: To provide students a general background on world civilizations and events. CONTENT: Carefully selected events, individuals, groups, institutions, artifacts, ideas, migrations, and other phenomena associated with world civilizations. EMPHASIS: Chronology (The World Before 1500), special nations (The Roman Empire), geographic regions (Western Hemisphere), certain ideas (Spread of Islam), selected topics (Routes of Travel), or specific groups (Chinese Culture).

POLITICAL SCIENCE 15110

LEVEL: 12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of government
PURPOSE: To provide superior students with a background in abstract political theory. CONTENT: Interaction of government and culture, political systems, processes, theories, goals, and relationships between governments. EMPHASIS: Comparative study of governmental units and political behavior of individuals.

AMERICAN GOVERNMENT 15111

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2 or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of government
PURPOSE: To provide all students background details on the functions of American Government. CONTENT: Processes and structures by which citizens of the United States govern themselves at the local, state, and national level.
EHPHASIS: Legislative and Executive branch.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS 15114

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of government
PURPOSE: Provide students with information on current international political situations. CONTENT: Agencies, operation, and principles involved in communication and interaction among world nations. EMPHASIS: Governmental relationships with the United States.

LAW AND JUSTICE IN NORTH DAKOTA 15118

LEVEL: 10-12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of government
PURPOSE: Provide students with details of criminal justice system on a localized basis. CONTENT: Four segments dealing with development of laws, law enforcement, courts and court structure, and corrections. EMPHASIS: Judicial branch with special attention to North Dakota statutes.
SPECIAL NOTE: Special guide for this course is available from the Department of Public Instruction.

features of the earth (physical geography), or with a special region (geograpy of North Dakota).

LOCAL HISTORY 15082

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of U. S. History
PURPOSE: To teach students the historian's method through researching and analyzing the local community. CONTENT: Selected events, individuals, groups, institutions, artifacts, ideas, natural environments, industries, and other phenomena associated with the immediate community of the local school.
EMPHASIS: Student involvement in research, interviews, site visitation, and writing.

WOMEN: PAST AND PRESENT 15083

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of U. S. History
PURPOSE: To provide students with special instruction on the contribtutions of women not normally included in the study of U. S. History. CONTENT: Overview of U. S. History highlighting the activities of women. Second portion details women's current status in 12 selected areas (e.g. politics, sports, education, etc.). EMPHASIS: Concentrates on women's activities in the context of American society.
SPECIAL NOTE: Special guide available from Department of Public Instruction for this course.

HISTORY OF NORTH DAKOTA 15084

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2, or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of U. S. History
PURPOSE: Provide students with detailed information on the State of North Dakota, especially for students planning to remain here. CONTENT: Selected events, individuals, groups, institutions, artifacts, ideas, natural environment, industries, and other phenomena associated with North Dakota. EMPHASIS: Contributions of Native Americans and development within the past 30 years.

U. S. HISTORY 15085

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2, or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of U. S. History
PURPOSE: To provide students with the necessary background information on current United States society. CONTENT: Selected events, groups, institutions, movements, artifacts, ideas, or other phenomena associated with the history of the United States. EMPHASIS: Chronology (Post-1920 U. S. History), major happenings (Civil War), specific groups (Minority History), selected topics (The Industrial Revolution), certain regions (The Western Frontier), or selected phenomena (Impact of the Iron Horse).
SPECIAL NOTE: Legally required instruction on U. S. and N.D. Constitutions may be included. See Chapter 1, page 1.

PSYCHOLOGY 15120

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of psychology
PURPOSE: Provide students with basic information on characteristic human behavior. CONTENT: Human intelligence, feelings, attitudes, and behavior in relation to their physical and social environment. EMPHASIS: General principles (Psychology), developmental (Child Psychology), social (Minority Studies), or problematical (Prejudice in American Society).

SOCIOLOGY 15130

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with five semester hours of sociology
PURPOSE: To provide students with basic knowledge of human societies. CONTENT: All of societal relationships, from primary groups to the complex groupings of megalopolis. Behavior patterns, deviance, status, culture, and change. EMPHASIS: The community (Labor Unions), theory (Principles of Sociology), problematical (Social Problems, Rural Problems), or special groups (Black Stuides, Indian Studies).

PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY 15201
(CONTEMPORARY PROBLEMS)
(PRESENT DAY PROBLEMS)

LEVEL: 11-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2, or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies
PURPOSE: To provide an opportunity for student exploration of special issues or current events. CONTENT: Combines economics, history, geography, political science, and sociology as designed by the local school. May utilize standard textbook if desired. EMPHASIS: Politics (Voting Rights), citizenship (The 18-Year-Old Citizen), current events (News Analysis), history (Background of World Problems), special topics (Garrison Diversion), community problems (Vandalism--Who? Why?), consumer information (Managing a Checking Account), or other social issues (Unmarried Mothers).

ORIENTATION TO SOCIAL STUDIES 15251

LEVEL: 9 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies
PURPOSE: To provide students with a general overview of all social sciences. CONTENT: Capsulated overview of each of the seven social sciences--history, geography, political science, economics, anthropology, sociology, and psychology. EMPHASIS: Local social stuides program and unique local information.

MARRIAGE AND THE FAMILY 15301

LEVEL: 12 CREDIT: 1/4 or 1/2
TEACHER: Minor in social studies with one course in marriage and the family
PURPOSE: To provide students a general view of American family structure and relationships. CONTENT: Sociological, legal, psychological and religious view of marriage and family relationships, responsibilities and roles of each member, function of the family in our society. EMPHASIS: Problems and activi-

ties of living as a family in North Dakota.
SPECIAL NOTE: See also Family Living 08015 on page 82 and Family Living 09016 on page 175.

NORTH DAKOTA STUDIES 15401

LEVEL: 9-12 CREDIT: 1/4, 1/2 or 1
TEACHER: Minor in social studies
PURPOSE: To supply students with pertinent information concerning life as a citizen of North Dakota. CONTENT: Life styles, employment opportunities, ethnic heritages, historical events, geographic description, geologic elements, sociological phenomena, current events, political insights, and other factors as appropriate. EMPHASIS: The local community and surrounding region--especially opportunities for young people.

Discussion Questions

1. Do you think any of the current laws or regulations relating to social studies should be changed? If so, which ones and why.
2. Do you agree with the amount of freedom given to North Dakota schools by the Department of Public Instruction, or do you think there should be stronger state requirements?

Activity

Using the form provided on the next page, draft a bill that you think would improve some aspect of social studies education.

Form 1:

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

			AYE	NAY
Assigned To Committee On SENATE _____ HOUSE	PASS			
Committee Report SENATE ☐ DO PASS ☐ IND/POST ☐ AMEND HOUSE ☐ DO PASS ☐ IND/POST ☐ AMEND	S J	H J		
Legislative Action on Amendments SENATE ☐ ADOPTED ☐ NOT ADOPTED HOUSE ☐ ADOPTED ☐ NOT ADOPTED				
3rd Reading and Final Passage SENATE ☐ PASS ☐ FAIL HOUSE ☐ PASS ☐ FAIL				

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

The New Social Studies

The term, "New" Social Studies (NSS), refers to the social studies reform movement of the 1960s. The programs developed during this period, labeled the "New" Social Studies, viewed social studies as basically a process that enables the student to become more proficient in rational thinking, data collecting and processing skills, and in using the basic techniques of the social scientists (McCafferty, 1970; Barr, 1970; Gerlach, 1971).

After Sputnik I was launched in 1957, many Americans came to believe that the United States had fallen behind Russia and that this was the schools' fault for not adequately preparing students for scientific careers. Social studies was viewed by the critics as being too shallow both in content and intellectual power. The critics said that social studies needed to become more "cognitive" and less "affective."

Between 1960-1970, the federal government funded approximately 100 programs--all designed to make social studies more intellectually demanding. Leaders from the various social sciences were called upon to help create the new programs. Some of the programs dealt with only one social science, such as the University of Georgia's Concept of Culture which was principally an antropologically oriented course for elementary students in grades 1-4. Others were an integration of several of the social science disciplines. An example of this type was the University of Minnesota's Project Social Studies, an interdisciplinary comprehensive K-12 program.

The following characteristics were common to most of the so-called "New" Social Studies curricula:

1. Students were taught the basic structure of the social science(s) being explored.
2. Key concepts and generalizations of the various social sciences were identified and included as teaching/learning content.
3. The memorization of isolated facts by students was de-emphasized.
4. Teaching/learning by the inquiry method was common.
5. The use of multi-media was encouraged.
6. The use of case studies was common.
7. Frequent use of primary source materials was made.
8. Students were expected to learn to investigate as "junior" social scientists.
9. Process was emphasized over content in many areas of study.
10. Students were seen as active participants in the learning process.

While the vast majority of the schools did not adopt the New Social Studies materials developed during this period, many of the NSS ideas have been incorporated into our present-day social studies textbooks published by the leading companies (Superka, et al, 1980).

One of the reasons more schools did not adopt the NSS materials was that they were seen as being too academic for many students. Also, the programs failed to provide adequate attention to student feelings, attitudes, and issues. As a reaction, the NEW "New" Social Studies of the 1970s emerged. This movement is based upon the belief, which is continuing into the 1980s, that many of the best features of the NSS should be retained but that greater balance between cognitive and affective social studies objectives must be achieved.

That social studies exists primarily for the purpose of helping young students acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes for good citizenship is a position that leading social studies educators are re-emphasizing in the 1980s. Also, the concern that social studies students be provided with an opportunity to deal with local problems and issues continues

to grow.

Regardless of what the newest developments in the field may be, social studies teachers can be confident that the most important considerations to bear in mind are that active student participation and the use of a variety of methods and materials help most to maximize student interest and achievement in social studies instruction.

REFERENCES

Barr, Robert D. "The Question of Our Professional Identity: Reactions to the Barth/Shermis Article." Social Education 34 (November, 1970): 751-54, 759.

Gerlach, Ronald A. "Educational Objectives and the New Social Studies." School and Society 99 (March, 1971): 180-82.

McCafferty, Donn. "Baboons, Boundaries, and Bassoons." Media and Methods 6 (February, 1970): 51-52.

Superka, Douglas P., S. Hawke, and I. Morrissett. "The Current and Future Status of the Social Studies." Social Education 44 (May, 1980): 362-69.

Discussion Questions

1. What event(s) contributed to the development of the "New" Social Studies?
2. Why haven't the NSS materials been widely used in American Schools?
3. List what you believe to be the most desirable features of many of the NSS programs.

Suggested Actitives for Preservice Teachers

1. Select for investigation one of the federally-funded New Social Studies projects of the 1960s. Report your findings by means of an oral class report.
2. Read about the NSS program, MAN: A COURSE OF STUDY (MACOS). Identify its reported strengths and weaknesses.
3. Select an article concerning the "New" Social Studies from issues of Social Education published in the 1960s. Prepare an abstract of the article for sharing with other preservice teachers.
4. Survey several social studies teachers. Ask them to define the term, the "New" Social Studies. What do your findings suggest?

MATERIALS AND SERVICES

Available from the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction

MATERIALS: A Guide for Curriculum Planning; Social Studies for North Dakota Schools; The Whole State Catalog; Outlook: North Dakota Education; North Dakota Heritage Activities; Project North Dakota and Project Study; Whee! into North Dakota; Project Study Work Pages; Flickertail Fun Pack; Study Canada; Student Learning Centers; Elementary Law Related Activities; Law Education for Elementary Schools; Law and Justice in North Dakota; The North Dakota Consumer; Women: Past and Present

SERVICES: Inservice Workshops; Consulting; Research Request; Textbook Repository

North Dakota Landscapes by Deb Erickson

Materials and Services Available from the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction

The services that the Department of Public Instruction offers to social studies teachers in North Dakota falls into three general areas: (1) Consultation and informational services, (2) Inservice workshops, and (3) Materials. While the exact nature of these services varies from year to year depending upon requests from school districts and teacher organizations, levels of funding available for these purposes and current needs as revealed by state wide test results or other types of information, the general summary of each type of service that follows can be anticipated to be available on a continuing basis. (At the time of this writing, however, the Department of Public Instruction was in a transitional period due to the election of a new Superintendent of Public Instruction. It's probably only fair to assume that some of the services mentioned in this section may be curtailed and others may be expanded as the new administration begins to organize its resources. The amount of federal funds available to education and the way in which these funds are allocated may also influence the quality and quantity of materials and services available through the Department of Public Instruction.)

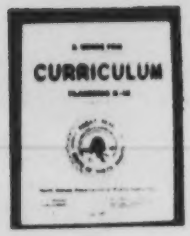
MATERIALS

The Department of Public Instruction publishes and disseminates several types of materials to help elementary and secondary schools in North Dakota. The most numerous types of publications are curriculum guides or some form of syllabus for a particular course. Other materials vary considerably but generally fall into two categories: (1) Materials specifically designed to teach about North Dakota and therefore not available from commercial sources because of the small market in the state, and (2) Commercial materials which are purchased by the Department and are provided on loan to schools with enrollments to small to permit them to purchase the materials themselves or with so little use for the materials that it would not be cost effective for the school district to purchase the material. In either case, the materials are normally announced by the Department as being available or mailed directly from the Department to every school or provided through an intermediate such as a regional media center, the office of the County Superintendent of Schools, or a Teacher Center. In all cases, the materials are provided without charge to teachers and other school personnel in the state. Summaries of pertinent materials are included later in this section.

MATERIALS FOR ALL TEACHERS, BOTH ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY

A Guide For Curriculum Planning K-12

This publication from the Department of Public Instruction was first printed in 1970 and is periodically revised to reflect changes in statutes, accreditation regulations or educational practice. It is a general planning



document offering brief summaries of North Dakota statues and regulations of the Department of Public Instruction regarding curriculum, teacher preparation, accreditation standards, and suggestions for local curriculum development procedures and a brief overview of each major curricular area, including vocational education course areas.

A Guide for Curriculum Planning should be available through the school superintendent or principal. It will offer the social studies teacher a quick reference to other subject areas as well as an overview of the suggested state program in social studies. Specifically in social studies, it offers a brief philosophy, general objectives of the social studies program, a short summary of the content for elementary social studies, and descriptions, requirements and reporting codes for all high school social studies courses.

Since the reporting codes represented in the Guide for Curriculum Planning are the same codes which must be used by teachers to fill out the fall personnel form (MISC 3) every social studies teacher should compare the courses they are scheduled to teach with the descriptions in the Guide for Curriculum Planning to insure that the correct report codes are used and that adequate teacher preparation is maintained by the assigned teacher.

Social Studies For North Dakota Schools

The state social studies guide, Social Studies For North Dakota Schools, was developed and distributed to schools in 1972. It is a nonprescriptive guide, having no details for each grade level but instead having a series of suggestions for curriculum development and instructional planning. It contains three groups of detailed objectives, elementary level K-5, intermediate level 6-8, and secondary level 9-12. For each level, social studies objectives, citizenship objectives and a listing of concepts and generalizations are presented.

For each level the social studies objectives are presented under headings: (1) Have curiosity about human affairs, (2) Use analytic-scientific procedures effectively, (3) Are sensitive to creative-intuitive methods of explaining the human condition, (4) Have knowledge relevant to the major ideas and concerns of Social Scientists, and (5) Have a reasoned commitment to the values that sustain a free society. The objectives increase in number and complexity from the elementary to the high school level.

The citizenship objectives follow the same pattern and are presented under nine major headings: (1) Show concern for the welfare and dignity of others, (2) Support rights and freedoms of all individuals, (3) Help maintain law and order, (4) Know the main structure and functions of our governments, (5) Seek community improvement through active, democratic participation, (6) Understand problems of international relations, (7) Support rationality in communication, thought, and action on social problems, (8) Take responsibility for own personal development and obligations, and (9) Help and respect their own families.

The concepts are drawn from the seven social sciences (Anthropology, Economics, Geography, History, Political Science, Psychology, Sociology) and follow the pattern of presentation of a single concept such as "culture" followed by a series of generalizations about that concept which the students should learn. Although the concepts remain fairly consistent at all three levels, the number and complexity of the generalizations increase from the elementary to the high school level.

The general design of Social Studies for North Dakota Schools is to serve both as a classroom aid in planning and evaluating daily instruction and also to provide the necessary background for extensive local curriculum development

and sequencing. Copies of the guide are available from the Department of Public Instruction.

The Whole State Catalog for North Dakota

Printed and distributed to all schools in the state in 1978, the Whole State Catalog is an extensive compilation of materials and resources of all types for use in teaching about the history and culture of North Dakota.

The Catalog contains summary reviews of 100 books about North Dakota and short descriptions of 20 North Dakota periodicals. It also includes a description and the location of many other printed materials.

The Catalog also contains location and description of museums, historical societies and historical sites, a listing of simulations dealing directly with the state of North Dakota, sources of maps of North Dakota, a listing of resource people and field trip sites cross indexed by county, a list of services and materials available through various organizations and institutions and an extensive list of audio-visual materials on North Dakota available on loan or for reasonable rental.

The Whole State Catalog for North Dakota is absolutely a necessary desk reference for any elementary or secondary teacher who teaches about North Dakota. It is also extremely useful to students who are doing independent research or other projects about the state. The Catalog has been widely distributed but extra copies are available from the Department of Public Instruction.

Loan Materials

The Department of Public Instruction has a limited amount of commerical and project-developed materials which are available on short term loan to social studies teachers. The exact nature of the material varies from year to year since the heavy use made of it normally means it has a very short life span.

The existance of loan materials is usually announced either in a letter to social studies teachers, by and article in the Newsletter of the North Dakota Council for the Social Studies, or through a notice in Perspective (formerly entitled, Outlook: North Dakota Education). A teacher in a small school with limited audio-visual resources may inquire, either through a telephone call to the Department or by sending a post card or letter, indicating the course being taught and requesting any audio-visual materials that may be available on loan from the Department.

Perspective (formerly entitled, Outlook: North Dakota Education)

Perspective is a tabloid newspaper of approximately eight to twelve pages which is issued by the Department of Public Instruction each month during the school year. Distribution of the publication is normally handled in a bulk mailing of copies to the school district central office which then inserts the newspaper in each teacher's distribution box.

An individual subscription can also be arranged and should be requested from teachers in one room rural schools or in other circumstances where the normal distribution is not being accomplished. This may be done through a letter of request to the Perspective editor at the Department of Public Instruction.

Perspective contains articles written by DPI staff members accompanied

by features from outstanding education leaders and curriculum specialists. It has a variety of information of general concern to educators as well as specific information targeted for teachers of selected subject areas such as social studies. Perspective also normally carries news releases of all types regarding student activities, contests, teacher workshops, and availability of loan materials or curriculum guides.

North Dakota Heritage Activities

In 1981, the Department of Public Instruction, in cooperation with the State Historical Society of North Dakota, distributed to all elementary principals copies of a publication entitled North Dakota Heritage Activities. Plans and descriptions of 31 projects and activities which students can to to learn more about the history and culture of North Dakota were presented. All but three of the activities are appropriate for elementary students and many of those intended for elementary students can also be used at the junior high or high school level.

North Dakota Heritage Activities is no longer available from the Department of Public Instruction but if you are unable to locate a copy in your school you may contact DPI or the North Dakota Heritage Center for the temporary loan of this document.

MATERIALS ESPECIALLY FOR ELEMENTARY AND JUNIOR HIGH TEACHERS

Project North Dakota

In 1969, the Department of Public Instruction distributed a large cardboard box to each elementary school in the state containing a variety of materials about North Dakota intended for elementary and junior high use. The kit included such things as samples of grain and industrial products, a filmstrip and other print materials. Few, if any, of the kits are still intact although almost all schools have elements from the Project North Dakota kit.

Most schools still have a large green plastic three-ring binder entitled "Project North Dakota Reference Resource" which contains ten sections of materials about North Dakota. The material consists of information summaries and various drawings and maps which can easily be converted to overhead transparencies and this material was updated in 1976.

Also included in Project North Dakota was a two part filmstrip about the state which includes superb color photography of flora, fauna and scenery of the state. No replacement items are available from the Department of Public Instruction and no Project North Dakota kits are now available. Each County Superintendent of Schools was provided a kit in 1969, so a complete or nearly complete kit may be available on short term loan from the County Superintendent.

Project STUDY Paperbacks

A collection of materials for teaching elementary students the history and current status of North Dakota, Project STUDY is a series of twenty paperback books developed and produced jointly by the Department of Public Instruction and Harvey Public School. Classroom quantities of the books, matched to school enrollments, were distributed to all public and private schools in North Dakota in 1979.

The books average about 40 pages in length. Each has a table of contents and an index. Written at the fourth grade reading level, the books are well illustrated but the interest level varies considerably. Project STUDY books are intended for use in grades four through six but may also be used with junior high students or with senior high students in learning impaired programs.

Seven of the books are chronological history of North Dakota. Six additional books are historical fiction, parelleling the first six chronological history books but presenting historically accurate stories or episodes. The remaining seven books are topic studies.

The booklets in the Project STUDY series include:

CHRONOLOGICAL HISTORY

The First People of North Dakota
The Developing Indian Culture in North Dakota
Explorers and Fur Traders in North Dakota
Settlement of North Dakota
Statehood and Growth of North Dakota
Declining Years and the Great Depression in North Dakota
The Modern Period of North Dakota

HISTORICAL FICTION

Flickertail in Captivity (Life Among the Indians in Early Times)
One Month West of Sundown (Changing Culture in North Dakota)
Joel, the Story of a Fur Trapper (Frontier Times in North Dakota)
A New Home! A New Land! (Settling in North Dakota)
Row, Brother, Row (Growing up with North Dakota)
Grandma's Diaries (The Depression Years in North Dakota)

TOPIC STUDIES

Agriculture in North Dakota
Dakota People
Geology, Geography and Climate of North Dakota
Natural Resources of North Dakota
North Dakota Government and State Institutions
North Dakota in the World
A Tour of Business and Industry in North Dakota

The Project STUDY books should be available in classroom quantities in every school in the state. If they are not available, additional copies can be requested from the Department of Public Instruction. It is the responsibility of each school district to organize and sequence the Project STUDY books as appropriate to the local school curriculum.

Wheel into North Dakota Studies (Project STUDY Teachers' Manual)

This publication is intended as a teachers' guide to accompany the twenty paperback books distributed in classroom quantities to all schools as a result of Project STUDY. Included in this publication are general suggestions as to the overall organization and sequencing of the twenty booklets and a detailed summary of each book.

In the revised edition printed in November, 1980, Project STUDY Workpages were included as a final section of Wheel into North Dakota Studies. A special feature of this guide is a general index to all of the Project STUDY booklets which makes it possible for a teacher to use the series as topic study of North Dakota or as a ready reference for individual research by students. Wheel into North Dakota Studies is available upon request from the Department of Public Instrucion.

Project STUDY Workpages

This publication, prepared in 1980 and reprinted in January of 1981, provides a comprehensive series of workpages for the chronological history and topic study books from the Project STUDY series. Included with the workpages is a complete answer key.

There are an average of seven pages of questions for each of the fourteen books. Most questions are fill-in-the-blank type although items such as crossword puzzles, matching, short answer questions, and individual projects are also included.

Project STUDY Workpages was sent only to elementary teachers requesting it so it is not in all schools in the state; however, copies are available upon request from the Department of Public Instruction. Teachers with five or fewer students may request multiple copies since local duplication may not be possible.

Flickertail Fun Pack

The Flickertail Fun Pack is a collection of over 200 five-by-eight activity cards for teaching about North Dakota. The Fun Packs, packed in a plastic box, were prepared and distributed to all schools in the state in 1978.

The Fun Pack is intended to be a desk reference that provides items for students to do while learning about North Dakota. Sixteen separate areas are covered in the Fun Pack, including Location, Geology and Geography, History, Political Development, The People of North Dakota, Transportation, Economics, Government Futuristics, Places to Visit, The North Dakota Hall of Fame (Rough Rider Award Winners), Literature, Arts and Sculpture, Creative Writing, Things to Make, and Teacher Suggestions.

One Fun Pack was provided to each school for each fourth grade teacher. The activity cards are so diverse, however, that some are appropriate to higher and lower grade levels. Teachers at other grade levels should check with the school principal, librarian and other teachers in order to locate the Fun Pack which should be in their school. Almost every County Superintendent of Schools will have a Fun Pack available on short term loan.

While it is possible for students to directly use the Fun Pack as part of a resource center, the most efficient use of the Fun Pack is either for the teacher to use it as a desk reference or for the teacher to take the seperate sections out of the box and use them in student learning centers or elsewhere, where they can be matched to a specific unit.

At this time, the Department of Public Instruction is making reprints of the Fun Pack available only to those schools which have never received one (newly constructed or newly approved private schools).

Flickertail Fun Pack Ditto Masters

Although designed to be a companion to the Flickertail Fun Pack, the Flick-

ertail Fun Pack Ditto Masters can also be used independently. The Ditto Masters are a series of over 100 activity sheets which can be locally duplicated for classroom use.

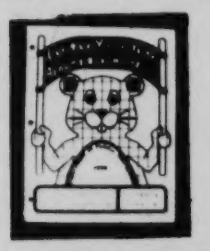
The types of activities range from simple questions requiring students to fill in the blanks to creative writing and art projects. Some require outside research materials. Several map exercises are also included. The Ditto Masters have been distributed to all schools and are also available upon request from the Department of Public Instruction. Although designed for grade levels four through six, the Ditto Masters can also be used with junior high students.

Study Canada Overview

Developed by the Center for Canadian and Canadian-American Studies at Western Washington University, Study Canada Overview is a small paperback monograph containing six specific activities which can be used at the junior high level to initiate a unit of Canada studies. Canada studies should be included within the overall American studies program specified for the junior high period by the North Dakota social study guide. The Study Canada Overview has been provided to each school without charge and a small number of additional copies are available from the Department of Public Instruction.

Student Learning Centers: A New Approach to Teaching North Dakota Studies

This document was distributed by the Department of Public Instruction in 1979. It consists of two separate publications placed in a gold plastic three-ring binder. The two publications are Center Your Year Around North Dakota and Tear Me Out.



Center Your Year Around North Dakota provides, in a standard format, detailed information about creating and using 26 student learning centers for teaching about North Dakota. The format of the book provides for each center: (1) a proportional drawing of the center, (2) a description of the learning center, (3) the objective of the learning center, (4) a list of resources and equipment that can be used in the center, (5) a research card picture outline that can be used in various ways with that particular center, and (6) suggested ways for using the research cards. Teachers can construct centers by following the instructions included in this publication and get accurate art work for each center by constructing a transparency from the proportional drawings in Center Your Year Around North Dakota.

Although these centers are designed specifically for teaching about North Dakota, they may be used for teaching general subjects. The centers in this book provide a beginning, a spring board to the construction and use of hundreds of additional student learning centers.

Although use of student learning centers is not tied to a specific grade level, they do require the ability on the part of the students to work independently. Student learning centers have proved most effective in grades four through six, although they are also utilized at the junior high level.

Tear Me Out, a publication containing more than 100 teaching activities, is a tool that a teacher can use to enhance a student learning center of the activities found in this book can also be used in many other ways. Teachers thus do not need to be using student learning centers to benefit from the extensive activities in Tear Me Out.

Most of the pages in Tear Me Out are intended to be ditto masters, reproduced locally in classroom quantities. They may, however, be mounted on cards

or used in other ways also.

Included in Tear Me Out, are several games and game boards, puzzles, seek-n-finds, word hunts, classroom cooking recipes, sample student contracts, dot-to-dots, mazes, and award sheets. All the materials are intended for teaching about North Dakota but can be generalized to other subject areas. Tear Me Out is primarily for use with grades four through six but also can be used at lower elementary levels or junior high levels.

The gold plastic three-ring binder for Student Learning Centers is no longer available but the separate publications Center Your Year Around North Dakota and Tear Me Out are available from the Department of Public Instruction.

Elementary Law Related Activities

As a joint project with other agencies and the Devils Lake Public Schools, the Department of Public Instruction has produced and distributed a manual of law related activities for elementary teachers. The manual includes nine units covering various facets of law, law enforcement, justice, citizenship and values and decisions.

Each unit has several lessons and each lesson is presented with a learner objective, background materials, classroom activities and follow up and spin off suggestions.

Included in the manual is information on North Dakota judicial districts and other activities such as mock trial of Goldie Locks.

Elementary Law Related Activities for North Dakota Schools was distributed to elementary teachers in grades four, five, and six in 1978. It should be available in all elementary schools. If not, additional copies are available from the Department of Public Instruction.

Law Education for North Dakota Elementary Schools

This series was also developed by the same project as the teacher manual listed above. It is a series of eight filmstrips with accompanying scripts and audio cassettes. In general, the filmstrip series parallels units in the Elementary Law Related Activities manual.

The series includes filmstrips on justice, smart shopping, pets and the law, fun within the law, shoplifting, law enforcement, touring a law enforcement center and a look at the government of North Dakota. Packaged in a small red binder, the filmstrip set should be available from the media center at all large school districts or may be borrowed from any County Superintendent of Schools in North Dakota. A few replacement sets are available from the Department of Public Instruction.

MATERIALS ESPECIALLY FOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

Law and Justice in North Dakota

Orginally published in 1974, and totally updated in 1977, Law and Justice in North Dakota is a specific secondary course in American Citizenship localized to the state of North Dakota. Designed as a semester course, Law and Justice in North Dakota has also been taught in several other formats including a nine week unit, a full year course and when combined with Consumer Education has become a full year "survival skills" course.

Law and Justice has four major sections: (1) Rights and laws, (2) Law enforcement, (3) Courts and court structure, and (4) Corrections. Within each section are several concept statements drawn from the general content of that section. Each concept statement is followed by optional teaching methods to achieve that concept statement. For each teaching method, instructions for the teacher are presented and a list of meterials needed is included.

Most of the materials needed for the course are included in a second portion of the document entitled Classroom Resources for Law and Justice in North Dakota. These materials are locally duplicated and then used in various ways as outlined under the teaching methods for each concept statement.

An especially valuable feature of Law and Justice in North Dakota is the extensive appendices section. Presented as brief summaries or overviews, the appendices cover twelve important areas connected with the criminal justice system of North Dakota.

Law and Justice in North Dakota is packaged in a gold plastic three-ring binder and has been distributed to all high schools in the state. A few additional copies are available from the Department of Public Instruction.

The North Dakota Consumer

The North Dakota Consumer is a curriculum guide for a consumer education course for secondary students. It was developed and field tested at Tuttle Public School and other locations in 1976 and is intended for a one semester course in consumer education.

The guide is divided into four major units. The first unit deals with establishing career possibilities and has sections on such things as locating career information, making decisions, preparing a resume, and interviewing for jobs. The second unit deals with making family purchases and contains eleven sections on such things as food, housing, clothing, taxes, and insurances. The third unit is on consumerism and covers advertising, fraud, and legal safeguards. A fourth unit is an extensive consumer simulation called "Blizzard" which establishes a reality based system for the student to exist on the current wages for any given occupation at current prices in a selected community in North Dakota.

The North Dakota Consumer was distributed to all schools in 1976 and is available upon request from the Department of Public Instruction.

Women: Past and Present

Researched and field tested at Magic City Campus, Minot, in 1974, Women: Past and Present, a secondary American History course, was distributed to schools in 1975. Packaged in blue or black three-ring plastic binders, Women followed the same format as Law and Justice in North Dakota (teachers' manual accompanied by a collection of classroom resources).

Units included in the course are Sexism, The Colonial Background, The Revolution to the Civil War, The Emerging Woman--Civil War to 1900, The Emerging Woman--1900 to World War I, Between Wars and Towards the Changing Present. A second complete section, "Women Present," has units on Stereotyping and Sexism, Language, Women in Politics, Working Women, Education, Life Styles in America, Media, Women's Legal Status, Religion, Sports, The Women's Movement, Special Problems and The Future.

Because history books now include more coverage of women and also because numerous commercial materials are now available on this topic, Women: Past and

Present has gone out of print. A xeroxed copy will be provided to teachers who wish to teach this course and to not have sufficient materials. A teacher who wants a copy should contact the Department of Public Instruction and request that a xeroxed copy of Women: Past and Present be sent.

SERVICES

The Department of Public Instruction offers two types of consultative services.

When requested by the local school administration or by the social studies teacher, personnel from the Department of Public Instruction, or others who serve as resource people to the Department, will visit the local school and offer advice and suggestions in such areas as curriculum planning, teacher methodology, materials or other aspects of curriculum and instruction. Normally, an on-site visit from a state consultant is not necessary unless the school or teacher is experiencing a problem with more that one class or the district is involved with curriculum development for several courses or grade levels at the same time. The state consultant should not be called in to evaluate a teacher or course or to make recommendations for a single course or teaching unit, however, the state consultant may be able to offer considerable assistance when the teacher or school district is planning a comprehensive program evaluation, major curriculum or material change or seeking solutions to serious curriculum or instructional problems.

The second type of consultative service offered by the Department of Public Instruction is usually performed through mail or telephonic requests and normally involves such things as recommended materials for a particular course or unit, teacher preparation for teaching a particular course, concerns about course content or methodology or difficulty in locating materials to support an existing unit or course in the local social studies program. Requests of this nature generally proceed directly from the social studies teacher to the state consultant in the form of a letter identifying the problem or concern and specifying the type of assistance which the teacher feels would be appropriate.

Textbook Repository

Under section 15-43-01 of the North Dakota Century Code every publisher offering textbooks for sale to the schools in North Dakota must provide one sample copy of each textbook to the Department of Public Instruction. This official sample sets the standard by which schools may compare the quality and printing of the books which they receive. The textbooks received by the Department of Public Instruction are kept for a period of five years or until replaced by a newer copyright.

The Department of Public Instruction thus has a large library of textbooks for any particular course at every grade level. Since they have only one copy of each text, the books are not sent out on loan nor, as a general rule, even permitted to be taken out the repository. For those teachers able to travel to Bismarck, however, the state repository provides an excellent opportunity to review all available textbooks for any particular course at any grade level at one location at one time.

Although most publishers are still willing to send sample copies to any school considering the purchase of new textbooks, smaller schools sometimes

have difficulty in attracting enough attention from publishers, especially those without sales representatives in the state, to get a wide selection of textbooks from which to make a selection.

Teachers with responsibilities for textbook selection will probably find it worth their while to either write, call or visit the state office to find out what textbooks are in the repository for the curriculum area under consideration.

Research Requests

Secondary teachers who teach units or courses in new or unusual curriculum areas may not have access to extensive materials on which to base their instruction. One of the services offered by the Department of Public Instruction is suggestion of teaching resources or information as to where teachers may seek teaching resources for any type of social studies unit or course being taught.

More than forty course files are maintained within the Department for rapid response to requests of this nature. In addition, contacts have been established outside the state of North Dakota to provide quick access to social studies course guides and teaching syllabuses from other states and major metropolitan areas.

A secondary teacher who is assigned a unit or course with which he/she is not familiar or notices a need on the part of students for special instruction should contact the Department of Public Instruction with a brief outline of what he/she wishes to teach and request suggestions for appropriate materials or methods.

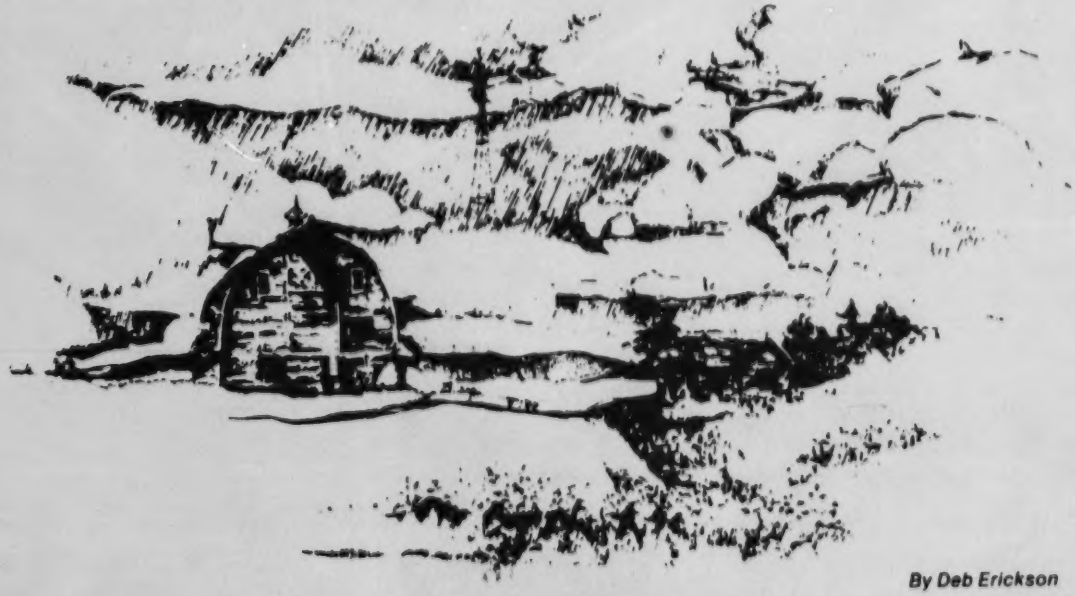
Inservice Workshops

Inservice workshops for social studies teachers provided by the Department of Public Instruction fall into two categories: (1) those originated, planned and conducted by state personnel and funded through state appropriated or federal grant funds as a result of general statewide needs or changes in curriculum or statute which result in a general need on the part of large number of teachers, and (2) inservice seesions conducted at a local school for the staff at the school or surrounding schools. In either case the workshops are usually of short duration, may or may not offer college credits and normally deal with narrowly defined topics such as a certain portion of the curriculum (e.g. law education) or with a particular teaching methodology (e.g. inquiry teaching). Social studies teachers who feel a need for inservice training may address a request for a workshop directly to the state consultant or may work through their school administrator to organize a local workshop. Another option is to initiate a request, for instance, to a regional teacher center.

SELECTED APPROACHES

- The Unit Approach
- The Thematic Approach
- The Learning Centers Approach
- The Contract Approach
- The Inquiry Approach
- The Inter-disciplinary Approach

North Dakota Landscapes



By Deb Erickson

Introduction

One of the most important decisions a teacher makes is in selecting the teaching approach that (1) works best for the teacher, (2) is most appropriate for the content being covered, and (3) matches most closely the maturity, learning styles, needs and interest of the students. While selecting the most appropriate approach based on these three considerations will not guarantee success (one still can do a poor job of teaching) selecting an inappropriate approach will certainly minimize any chance of a successful teaching/learning experience.

Fortunately, there are a number of effective approaches to the teaching of social studies at the elementary, junior high, and high school levels. We have chosen in this chapter to focus on six of the approaches most commonly used by teachers in North Dakota schools. These approaches include: THE UNIT APPROACH, THE THEMATIC APPROACH, THE LEARNING CENTERS APPROACH, THE CONTRACT APPROACH, THE INQUIRY APPROACH, and THE INTER-DISCIPLINARY APPROACH. Each approach is drawn from a composite of teachers using a similar approach. Some of the material presented in the various sections, however, are actual samples of materials used in specific schools or classrooms in the state.

It should be emphasized that perhaps the major decision a teacher makes, other than the day-to-day decisions involved in managing a classroom, deals with selecting instructional approaches. What the teacher teaches, when it's taught, the length of the time it's taught, the textbook that is used, etc., are usually mandated by an administrator or curriculum committee, but how it is taught (the approach used) is determined solely by the classroom teacher.

The Unit Approach

A Brief Background

The textbook has long been the dominant vehicle around which social studies instruction has been centered. The unit method offers an excellent alternative to the textbook approach. Many teachers have found that a combination of both works well, as this provides variety in instructional methods.

In this section the strengths of the unit approach in social studies will be indentified and a suggested format for organizing a written social studies unit will be provided.

The unit approach in social studies can be traced back to the first quarter of this century, if not farther. The teachers in John Dewey's Lincoln Campus School at Columbia University developed many outstanding units in the early 1900's that made social studies truly an interdisciplinary study. Also, the leaders of the Progressive Education movement, which reached its peak in the 1930's, strongly advocated teaching by the unit method.

In the 1940's and early 50's, the social studies unit approach drew criticism from many educational groups for producing curriculum that was too superficial in content and lacking in the identification of significant concepts and understandings for student development. Also, unit teaching had become, critics said, too rigid and ritualistic.

Advantages of the Unit Plan

The unit approach is again being advocated as a viable alternative to the social studies textbook. The social studies unit of today has, however, changed along with recent developments in social studies. Advantages of the unit plan as outlined recently by Kaltsounis (1979) are:

1. Unit teaching enables the teacher to select current, relevant content for social studies instruction.
2. The unit plan facilitates the conceptual approach. For example, after several key concepts from a particular topic have been identified, the teacher can then go about designing learning activities that capitalize on the students' preferred learning modalities.
3. The unit plan provides opportunities for decision making. The content to be learned and the instructional methods to be used are determined by the teacher in cooperation with the students. This decision-making provides the opportunity to give attention to local problems and concerns.
4. Unit teaching allows the teacher an opportunity to individualize instruction. The use of learning contracts and learning centers are two natural unit activities that can be used to adjust the learning activities to the capabilities of the students.
5. Because a unit in social studies tends to be open-ended, there is a greater chance for incidental indirect, yet important, learnings to take place.

Format for Developing a Social Studies Unit

The following outline identifies the components of a social studies unit.

I. Unit Title
II. Unit Generalizations, Concepts, and Issues
III. Unit Instructional Objectives
IV. Initiating Activity
V. Teaching/Learning Activities
VI. Culminating Activity
VII. Evaluation Procedures
VIII. Extended Learning Activities
IX. Available Human and Material Resources

An example of an abbreviated social studies unit follows. The reader is reminded that only one or two suggestions are provided under each heading. It is not a completely developed unit; it is only suggestive in nature.

Unit Title: Petroleum: A Dwindling Source of Energy
Unit Generalizations, Concepts, and Issues:
Generalizations:
1. Fuel prices increase as the abundance of the fuel decreases.
2. A low cost of a particular fuel will encourage greater usage and waste of that fuel.

Concepts: Conservation, energy, fossil fuels, etc.
Issues:
1. Should the U. S. Government control gasoline prices?
2. How can Americans be encouraged to conserve petroleum fuels?

Unit Instructional Objectives:
1. The student will be able to accurately define the term, fossil fuel.
2. The student will be able to state, orally or in writing, the reason for America's switching from coal to petroleum as a prime

energy source in the 1920's and 30's.

Initiating Activity:

To introduce the unit topic, pose the following question for thought. Then lead the students in an open-ended discussion. "Is the gasoline shortage real? Or is it an attempt by the large oil corporations to raise prices and increase profits"?

Teaching/learning Activities (to be listed day-by-day):

Day Number 1: Hold the discussion of the question listed in the preceeding section. Record the different views expressed on the chalkboard. Make a copy of these for later use. Next, use the filmstrip, Petroleum Reserves: How Much is There Left?

Day Number 2:

Day Number 3: etc.

Culminating Activity:

Return to the views expressed during the initial discussion of the unit. Write them on the chalkboard. Have students decide what changes in opinions have occured and which views are still held. (This discussion will help the teacher to evaluate the amount and type of learnings that have taken place.)

Evaluation Procedures:

1. Have students list ten things they have learned during the unit that they view as most important.
2. Have students write definitions of the key concepts introduced in the unit-energy, fossil fuels, conservation ethic, etc. (There are many alternatives to the traditional paper-and pencil test that should, at times, be utilized-exhibits constructed, charts prepared, notebooks maintained, oral reports given, etc.)

Extended Learning Activites:

1. Some students may wish to do independent research on an energy related topic, such as nuclear fusion as an energy source. Oral reports could be given as the individual research is completed.
2. Some students may wish to interview a local resident concerning how they are attempting to reduce the amount of petroleum fuel(s) they use.

Available Human and Material Resources:

1. Appropriate pages of available school textbooks
2. Articles found in current library magazines
3. Daily newspaper stories
4. Available audio-visual materials (both local and from rental sources)
5. Names of the local residents possessing expertise on various components of the topic being studied

(The above list provides an example of the learning resources that the teacher needs to identify while developing the unit.)

The unit method of teaching social studies has many advantages. It certainly does place the teacher in the role of a professional educator responsible for creating learning experiences that are current and relevant for his/her students. Creativity and sufficient pre-planning by the teacher are crucial in order to make this teaching method effective.

REFERENCE

Kaltsounis, Theordore. Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1979.

Discussion Questions

1. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the unit method of teaching social studies?
2. Should the unit method be the only one used in social studies instruction? *Why or why not?*

Activities for Preservice Teachers

1. Select a few key concepts, and then prepare a unit to help students develop those concepts. (First, of course, it must be decided for what age level the unit would be appropriate.)
2. Obtain, if possible, copies of local-teacher developed social studies units. Use these questions for evaluating the units:
   a. Are the key generalizations, concepts, and issues identified?
   b. Has the principle of variety been observed in the listed day-to-day activities?
   c. Do the activities provide for active student involvement?
   d. Are opportunities provided for visual, auditory, and "hands-on" learning experiences?
   e. Are the learning experiences individualized?
   f. Will the students have an opportunity for decision-making during the unit?
   g. Does the unit relate to the local environment of the students?
   h. Have opportunities for student choice in learning activities been provided?
   i. Are the evaluation techniq ues appropriate for the types of learnings that are being measured?

The Thematic Approach

During the past years, as I attempted to cope with all the demands of the classroom, I found that organizing curriculum around a theme resulted in better use of time and materials and increased my ability to incorporate isolated subject areas of the curriculum into learning experiences for the children. Often we, myself and the students, were able to include areas not suggested by curriculum guides or basal texts, but were of greater interest and had more learning potential for students.

The length and scope of a theme is dependent on the interest and abilities of teacher and students. It may be as short as an hour's activities revolving around the study of color, for example, or it may last for weeks as children study a subject in depth. I have known teachers who had a major theme each month and one who even had a theme for the entire year. At the same time that a main theme is developing in the class, smaller themes also develop simultaneously as groups of children work on projects or in curriculum areas. These may come about because of an interest developing from the main theme or as the result of a story, question, experiment, natural phenomena or awareness of world and local events.

In fact, we don't have to search far or long for themes. They can be found almost everywhere and can be drawn from every curriculum area, but the most successful are those which develop from the interest and environment of students. Students are interested in so many things in their everyday world that if we are sensitive to their concerns, questions, and delights, we have no difficulty finding a topic for study. Since the interest is already there, one

does not have to resort to any type of contrived motivation, which says to students that what is happening here in the classroom has no relationship to what they perceive as the world outside the classroom. As teachers, this certainly is not our intention, or we would not put so much time and effort into trying to provide motivation for students. However, an artificial motivation, which does not come from the interest of the students often does give that impression to them.

No activity, lesson or project, no matter how greatly interested the students are in it, is successful without the enthusiasm and skill of the teacher. It is you the teacher who makes the learning experience successful as you question, guide, organize, and model behavior. A willingness to be open and flexible in one's plans and scheduling, along with a commitment to involve students in their own learning, is necessary for the success of the theme approach.

DEVELOPING THE THEME

Although there are a number of ways one might go about developing a theme, this section will attempt to give an overview of one approach and some ideas for working with a theme of "bridges." It is not meant to be a blueprint for every classroom and teacher, but rather as a starting point for reflection and discussion. Each teacher must adapt and modify the following ideas to fit the needs of students and his/her own style of teaching.

Webbing

A technique which I often use in the beginning stages of planning a theme is called webbing. It is a way of showing, in diagram form, the many possible directions which the study of a topic could lead students and teacher. By listing all the possible activities and areas for study one can move beyond the narrow confines of the topic and become more aware of the interrelatedness of concepts, materials, and subject areas. It helps to prepare one's thinking so that interactions with students can occur more spontaneously and, through the intervention of questions and materials, to stimulate and expand children's thinking. It is not a lesson plan, but clarifies and helps one perceive possibilities and then becomes a reference bank to which one can refer. Later it can be used to help evaluate and assess what has occured in the classroom.

Perhaps the easiest way to begin a webbing is to sit down with a large piece of paper and begin brainstorming all the ideas which occur to you about a topic. One idea leads to another and that idea spins you off in another direction. You will soon have a paper full of ideas and activities. As you are jotting down your ideas, relationships begin to emerge and you can begin grouping them under various headings. One of the most enjoyable ways of doing this brainstorming is to meet with other teachers whose class will be studying the same topic. Each of you will have the advantage of each other's ideas and expertise. This need not take a great deal of time. One of the advantages of webbing is that it is always incomplete. It can be added to and changed as thoughts and ideas occur to you.

SETTING OBJECTIVES

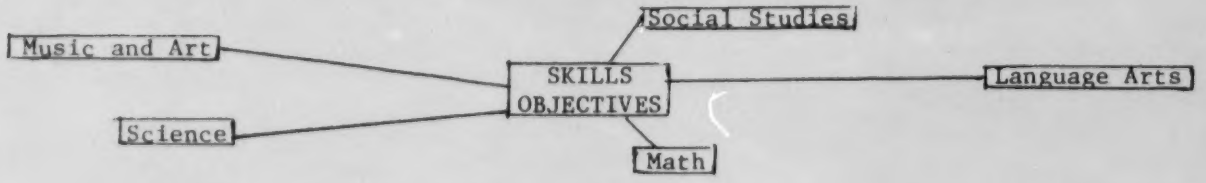
Before beginning your web, however, you will probably want to list skills, concepts, and objectives which students will be learning and practicing as the theme progresses. This list will vary from classroom to classroom and from

theme to theme. It should come mainly from a teacher's knowledge about the needs and abilities of the students. Observation, along with good record keeping, will provide you with a firm foundation in determining which goals and objectives (of the many which are listed in the basal texts and curriculum guides) are the most appropriate for your students. The interrelatedness of skills and objectives among the various curriculum areas becomes more apparent by placing them in a webbing using subject areas as headings. Let's begin such a web for a hypothetical primary classroom. The concepts, objectives, and skills have been taken from a primary curriculum but the concept of webbing is equally appropriate for upper elementary or even some junior high and high school courses. Also, the example provided below is in no way meant to be complete and comprehensive, but only to help one become more aware of the relationships between subject areas.

Learn to play instruments
Identify sounds of instruments
Develop listening skills
Develop vocabulary
Learn to create designs
Learn to make shapes with clay
Learn about soil and growth of plants
Learn about animals
Collect specimens
Learn about water
Learn to classify
Learn to solve problems
Learn about living/nonliving things

Gain appreciation for work of others
Learn about families
Learn directions and use of maps
Develop a sense for history and stories of the past
Communicate with others
Use number words
Make 1-1 relationships
Perceive numbers in sets
Learn ordinal/cardinal order
Identify geometric shapes
Learn to compare objects
Learn to match and classify objects

Learn visual discrimination
Learn number/color names
Develop sentence structures
Recognize sounds in environment
Develop muscle control for writing
Learn beginning letter sounds
Learn same/different
Learn to label
Learn to recognize titles of favorite books



As you look closely at the above webbing it can be seen that many of the skills are not confined to one curriculum area. The practice of skills and the learning of concepts crosses over subject area lines. Classification activities, for example, were given as objectives in all of the areas. Size concepts, which was listed under math, can also be learned by the student as he/she traces, builds, or uses various art materials. Learning about animals in science certainly involves using reading and writing skills and math concepts as one compares number of feet, size and weight of various animals. Or, using another example, as children build a model of a bridge they are learning about size relationships, gravity, properties of wood, metal and stone, patterning, geometric shapes and engineering principles. At the same time, they will be using prepositional phrases, learning new words for bridges and, perhaps, singing about a very famous bridge. Students use many skills and concepts at the same time. They do not use them in isolation.

In order for the theme approach to be successful, one must learn to take these objectives and skills out of the suggested subject areas and to think of them as part of activities in which students are involved. Knowing the abilities of your students, being aware to possible directions of the activity and having specific objectives in mind will allow you to intervene and interact with students. Questioning, the introduction of other materials and activities and relating the activity to life outside the classroom all expand the student's awareness and learning.

GATHERING MATERIALS

Once a theme has been decided upon and the webbing completed, it is time to begin gathering materials. I have found it helpful to have a large box available into which I can place books, pictures, games, or materials. As ideas or thoughts occur, these can be jotted down and also placed in the box. In this way those good ideas do not become lost in the busyness of a school day. Some teachers keep lists of materials, books, and games, and their locations, on their desk or posted in a convenient spot in the room. When they are ready to begin the theme, needed materials can be gathered quickly and easily.

Developing a web and gathering materials becomes a two way street. Working on a web for a theme helps to make you more aware of materials which can be used and the gathering of materials will often lead you in new directions, which can then be added to the web.

A WEB OF POSSIBILITIES -- BRIDGES

Why bridges, you might ask. No special reason except that one day as I drove over a bridge I was struck by the repeated patterns and shapes formed by the materials used for the bridge. I began noticing other bridges and became aware of the great variety and types of bridges. Later, I began to speculate what would life be like without certain bridges in my own community and realized, perhaps for the first time, how important these bridges were to the economy and life of the community. Every community, no matter how small, has some type of bridge near by. Helping students become more aware and sensitive to their environment and surroundings is an important objective of education.

The webbing for bridges is by no means complete and I'm sure each person who looks at it would be able to add different dimensions and perceptions to it. It is important to remember that the purpose for doing a webbing is to expand teacher and student awareness and to determine possible directions. Thus, this webbing is done for no particular grade level and is only a starting point for working with students.

Bridge/a card game
Bridge of a ship
Bridge/false teeth
To bridge something
Bridge of your nose
toll bridge
viaduct
overpass
span
railroad trestle
connectors
gathering of tolls
Uses of Bridges
Words for Bridge
Meanings for Bridge
Pattern blocks
Geoboards
triangular
trapezoid
hexagon
diamond
Length
Colors
Location of bridges
Geometric designs
Repeated patterns
over water
over highways
over streets
between buildings
over canyons
between hills
across ravines
girder
words for bridges
sidewalk superintendent
span
piling
cofferdams
foundation
pier
String Sculpture
Learning to use
Compass
Protractor
Observe
Locations
Vocabulary
BRIDGES
Materials
Compare & Contrast
Architectural Styles
Arch
false
true
Roman
pointed
segmental
Truss
Types
Expansion
Covered
Drawbridge
Rolling-lift
Box-girder
Suspensions
Natural
Cantilever
Aqueduct
Pontoon
Dam
Famous Bridges
London Bridge
Golden Gate
Brooklyn Bridge
Roman Bridge-
Ponte diAugusto
Ponte Vecchio
Rialto Bridge in Venice
song
book by Peter Spier
Lake Havasu City
Locate on maps
famous bridges
builders
Length, height, spans, etc.
Field Trips/Speakers
Walking trips to view various bridges/sites
Historical Society personnel
Public Library to see old photos
Bridges in History
Poem, "Horatius at the Bridge" by Macaulay
Bridges along Erie Canal
Occupations
Engineer
Architect
Contractor
Welder
Construct Bridges
unit blocks
girder sets
toothpicks
tonge depressors
Legos
ESS unit - structures
straws
Erector sets
murals
poems
books
speakers

SOME ACTIVITIES TO DO WITH A THEME OF BRIDGES

As you work on a webbing, many activites will immediately come to mind. The song, "London Bridge," while providing hours of enjoyable song and dance for younger children, can also be a starting point for older students to explore ways in which a bridge played major roles historically, economically and socially in a community. Building replicas of famous bridges, determining ways to measure local bridges, learning to use measuring tools, or making a mural of a bridge being built will have your students actively participating in the learning process. Students will gain valuable skills as they research names of bridges and why bridges are located in particular areas, map locations of bridges, interview people, or delve into old records for information.

As you plan activities remember that in almost everything we do in school, children can ESTIMATE, PREDICT, MEASURE, OBSERVE, ORDER THINGS, COLLECT, GRAPH, RECORD or TABULATE. The more students are involved in doing these activities in meaningful situations the better prepared they will be for taking part in the world about them.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

The Thematic Approach is, at least in part, an attempt to move away from what many see as "over-specialization." Others, however, support increased specialization in the nations classrooms. Which position, characterized by the statements below, would you support?

> Schools have become grossly overspecialized. Students take 5 or 6 subjects a day and these subjects have become so narrow as to almost useless in real life. Teachers are also "over-trained" in their particular specialty. The really "well-educated" teacher is almost a thing of the past.

> We live in an age of specialization. You wouldn't want your family doctor to do open heart surgery should you, heaven forbid, need it. Neither should you expect a teacher to be able to teach English and math and history or even history and geography. Teachers have to specialize like everyone else if we are going to have the best schools possible.

ACTIVITIES FOR PRESERVICE TEACHERS

Working with two or three other students, try webbing one of the themes listed below:

The Depression Years
Our State - North Dakota
Recent U.S. History
Transportation
Entertainment

The Learning Center Approach

The social studies learning center approach follows basically the same plan that a teacher would use to develop regular classroom learning centers (i.e. science, math, handwriting, reading, etc.) in that the learning centers are placed around the exterior of the classroom with most large group activities taking place withing the central part of the classroom where there may or may not be tables or student desks. Typically, most teachers who are constructing centers will draw their classroom on paper, make major or minor adjustments with their proposed plan and then proceed to initiate the centers in their classroom. In most cases, location of the centers will be affected by such factors as the location of electrical outlets, counters, sinks, projectors and screens.

After the floor plan for the proposed learning centers has been established, the teacher will acquire or build the necessary tables, dividers and bulletin boards. It should be pointed out that every center basically requires a table for the learning center materials, a divider to separate the centers from each other and some type of bulletin board. Special consideration must be given to the divider, as this is a vital part of the learning center plan. Dividers not only separate the centers from each other but also serve as barriers to eliminate distractions that can occur between centers.

Once the room plan has been established and the specific centers are identified, the construction of the learning centers can be initiated. This writer usually obtains the necessary tables and places them around the exterior of the classroom in the approximate location of the intended learning center. Next, the dividers are put into place between each table. Bulletin boards are constructed with colorful titles that draw attention to the center. Some teachers may encounter a shortage of bulletin board space in their classrooms. Frequently teachers will have to attach the learning center bulletin board to a regular classroom wall or to a chalkboard. If a bulleting board cannot be constructed, large cut-out letters are certainly appropriate for the purpose of learning center identification.

It is at this point that the actual theme of each center should be considered. Utilizing a North Dakota theme, the following centers might be considered:

1. Listening and Viewing Center
2. Maps and Globes Skill Center (North Dakota)
3. Natural Resources of North Dakota
4. North Dakota Parks and Recreation Center
5. Red River Valley Center (This center would vary according to the geographic location of various school districts.)
6. North Dakota History Center
7. Arts and Crafts Center

The floor plan of these centers could resemble the following:

Arts and Crafts | North Dakota History | Maps & Globe Skills | Red River Valley Center

Desks or Tables for Large Group Instruction

Listening and Viewing | Parks and Recreation | Natural Resource Center

The content of each center would depend on what materials the teacher has available. In most cases a considerable amount of learning center material is constructed by the classroom teacher and supplemented by commercially prepared materials. An excellent source of ideas and materials for a North Dakota Learning Center is The Whole State Catalog, which is available from the State Historical Society.

Teachers frequently state, "I find learning centers to be very interesting and would use them if I had a better management and record keeping system." This indeed is a major point to consider. Learning centers can be constructed, materials obtained and learning guides developed, but some type of management system has to be established. Basically this writer suggests the use of both large group presentations and learning centers. Learning centers combined with occasional large-group instruction compliment each other. Typically, teachers may wish to show the entire group a filmstrip or movie, demonstrate how to do a specific craft or give a teacher-led presentation on a particular topic. After the teacher-led presentation, the students are often dismissed to work in the learning centers. Students could select their centers each day; however, it's probably better to use some type of rotation system whereby one group of students would spend a portion of Monday's social studies class at the listening and viewing center, Tuesday at the Parks' and Recreation Center, etc. Most teachers find a method such as this very acceptable as it allows for an orderly flow of students from center to center. A typical rotation system often resembles the following in which the students rotate in groups of three or four through the various learning centers.

MASTER ROTATION CHART
(Numbers Represent Students)

	Arts & Crafts	Listening & Viewing	Parks & Recreation	North Dakota History	Maps & Globes	North Dakota Resource
Session I	1, 2, 3	4, 5, 6	7, 8, 9	10,11,12	13,14,15	16,17,18
Session II	16,17,18	1, 2, 3	4, 5, 6	7, 8, 9	10,11,12	13,14,15
Session III	13,14,15	16,17,18	1, 2, 3	4, 5, 6	7, 8, 9	10,11,12
Session IV	10,11,12	13,14,15	16,17,18	1, 2, 3	4, 5, 6	7, 8, 9
Session V	7, 8, 9	10,11,12	13,14,15	16,17,18	1, 2, 3	4, 5, 6
Session VI	4, 5, 6	7, 8, 9	10,11,12	13,14,15	16,17,18	1, 2, 3

Other methods include the placement of one-half of the class in the centers while the teacher works with the other members of the class. Others have the children utilize the learning centers throughout the day after they complete work in other subject matter areas. While this particular method is certainly acceptable, one does need some type of check-in or admission system to the centers in order to eliminate an over-flow of children at one center. This can be easily controlled through the use of such devices as clothes pins or large paper keys which the student must possess in order to participate at that particular center. These devices are placed at the entrance to a center and easily regulate "numbers" at the centers. If there are three clothes pins at the entrance to a specific center, only three children can be at that particular center.

ASSIGNMENTS AT CENTERS

While it is certainly acceptable to construct learning centers for the purpose of allowing children the opportunity to explore and examine numerous enriching and challenging activities that relate to a given subject, most teachers prefer some type of accountability system that provides them with a concrete overview of what has been accomplished at a particular center. Generally this type of learning plan for centers is referred to as a learning center contract, a plan of action, daily time card, etc. Whatever type of learning plan used is not important; what is important is the experience the children are to encounter and perform at the center. A sample learning center study guide could resemble the following:

LEARNING CENTER CONTRACT
(Weekly plan)

DATE _____ STUDENT _____

Directions to Student: Complete the required section of your assignment card and then chose an activity of your choice. * Required

1. Arts and Crafts

   *A. Make a large mural of North Dakota _____
   B. Construct a diorama which depicts North Dakota _____
   C. Choice _____

2. North Dakota History

   *A. Read the S.T.U.D.Y. booklet on North Dakota explorers _____
   B. Write a short report on the booklet _____

3. Listening and Viewing Center

   *A. Look at the filmstrip on Sakajawea _____
   *B. Answer the questions about the filmstrip _____
   C. Choice _____

4. Maps and Globe Skills Center

   *A. Take a map of North Dakota and label the following cities: Fargo, Bismarck, Grand Forks, Minot, Mandan, Jamestown, Dickinson, Williston, and Valley City. _____

*B. On the same map label other major cities _____
C. Choice _____

5. Natural Resources

*A. Examine the relief map of North Dakota Identify the coal mining region, the oil producing regions and the wheat growing areas _____
B. Begin working on your scrapbook of North Dakota resources _____

6. North Dakota Parks and Recreation Center

A. Write a letter to the North Dakota Department of Tourism. (address is on Center bulletin board) _____
B. Take a North Dakota map and locate and label the major parks and recreation areas _____

7. Red River Valley Center

A. Read the pamphlet or listen to the tape on ancient Lake Agassiz _____
B. Make a drawing of the accient lake that formed the Red River Valley _____
C. Choice _____

EVALUATION

In many instances teacher observation is the most effective way of evaluating a student's progress at a learning center; however, if some other type of evaluation is required or necessary, completed work should be placed in an answer box within the center for teacher evaluation at a later time. Some teachers utilize learning center work as the total basis of a student's evaluation is social studies, while others incorporate the learning center work into the final grade or average on a percentage basis. In some classrooms, one-third to one-half of the evaluation for a particular marking period is taken from the work accomplished at the learning centers.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

While on the surface, the learning center approach to social studies instruction appears to be a monumental task, the most time consuming part is in the initial planning. Once you know what you want in your center, the construction is relatively simple and once constructed become relatively easy to continue unit to unit.

One might also ask, "What if I do not wish to have social studies centers up in my classroom all year"? It is never intended that the centers in the classroom focus continually on a social studies theme. During another part of the school year one may want to have a six-week unit in science, math, etc. in which the centers enrich another given academic area. Also, one may wish to (as mentioned earlier) have numerous other academic area type learning centers in the classroom. It is suggested that within the self-contained classroom, multi-approaches to learning centers can be utilized. A series of centers

which focus on a theme are extremely beneficial and add greatly to areas in which a teacher wishes to place a special emphasis. A study of North Dakota would be an excellent example.

Learning centers have proven their effectiveness in providing more individualized instruction. It just is not possible for a teacher to teach the same page or concept to every student in the class at the same time. Students vary greatly in their interests, abilities, and preferred styles of learning. The lecture method is effective with a limited number of students. Other means must be enlisted to allow all children to encounter the means by which they can process information as effeciently as possible. Learning centers offer one means of providing for these individual differences and learning styles.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Do you think most students would learn more or less in a classroom that used learning centers? Why?
2. How do you think students, parents, and administrators react to the use of learning centers?

ACTIVITIES FOR PRESERVICE TEACHERS

1. Draw your ideal classroom! What would you want to have in your ideal classroom? How would you want it arranged? Why?
2. Plan a learning center! What would the theme or topic be? What would you want students to get out of the center? What materials would you include? What assignments? How would you make it "eye catching"? How would you evaluate students? How would you schedule students into the center?

The Contract Approach

Ms. Jaeger uses the Contract Approach to individualize her seventh grade Geography class. She began by taking one of the chapters from the textbook and breaking it down into short simple lessons that most students could complete in two or three class periods. When she was finished she had twelve lessons or contracts that students could complete independently at their own rate.

Each of the contracts contained a fairly specific behavioral objective, a sample test item from the post test, a pre-test, a listing of instructional experiences, worksheets or study guides, and a final examination or post-test. One of the twelve contracts originally developed by Ms. Jaeger is shown below:

I. CONTRACT NUMBER: SS-401-155.0
II. GENERAL CONTENT DESCRIPTION: 7th grade geography-Mexico, Natural Environment
III. PRE-REQUISITE: SS-401-150
IV. BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES: Upon completion of this contract, the student will be able to answer correctly 70% of the questions in a true-false quiz covering landforms, soils, water supply and minerals of Mexico.

V. SAMPLE TEST ITEM:

_____1. Mexico's major land form is mountains?

VI. LEARNING AREA TAXONOMY: Cognitive: knowledge

VII. PRE-TEST: Filed under separate cover

VIII. INSTRUCTIONAL EXPERIENCES:

___1. View filmstrip-tape presentation, "Mexico - Our Friendly Neighbor - the Geographic Background, " Eye Gate House Inc., #97B.

___2. View transparency, "North America Distribution," Hammond, #8485

___3. Read: Readers Digest Almanac and Yearbook, 1969, Reader Digest Association, 1968, pp. 531-532.

___4. Read: World Book Encyclopedia, "Mexico, the Land and Its Resources."

___5. Complete worksheet, SS-401-155.2, and hand into instructor for evaluation.

IX. WORKSHEET A - attached

X. POST-TEST -- filed under separate cover

CONTRACT NUMBER: SS-401-155.1

PRE-TEST

_____1. The major landform of Mexico is _____.

_____2. Name the two peninsulas of Mexico.

_____

_____3. The chief mineral resource of Mexico is _____.

CONTRACT NUMBER: SS-401-155.2

WORKSHEET A

Define the following terms of locations.

1. Sierra Madre Oriental
2. Sierra Madre Occidental
3. Baja California
4. Yucatan Pennisula
5. Mount Orizaba
6. Mesa Central
7. Tropic of Cancer
8. Rio Grande

As soon as the student has completed the "instructional experiences" for a contract, they will take their work to Ms. Jaeger to be corrected and if the work is satisfactory the student will be given a post-test. If the post-test is completed satisfactorily the student will progress to the next contract in the series.

Ms. Jaeger has continued to expand the use of contracts in her seventh grade geography class and now uses contracts for the work covered during the last eight weeks of her one semester course. Other teachers in Ms. Jaeger's building use contracts almost exclusively, but Ms. Jaeger feels more comfortable in using a unit approach during the first part of the semester. She is, however, enthusiastic about the use of contracts, feeling that they give students an opportunity to become much more independent learners and they also allow her to work more intensely with individual students - challenging the more able student and giving support and direction to those that may be less able.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. If you were a student in Ms. Jaeger's seventh grade geography class do you

think you would like working with the contracts? What might you like about it or dislike about it? Do you think you would learn more or less? What about other students, do you think most would learn effectively using this method?

2. Why do you suppose Ms. Jaeger might be more comfortable in using the unit approach during the first part of the semester?

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Working in small groups of 2-4, or individually if you prefer, see if you can develop a contract or two based on some part of the project study booklet found in the appendices.
2. Take a poll of students who have worked with contracts. What did they like, dislike? Did they learn more or less, etc? Take some time to identify the questions you want to ask, then develop the questions into an interview format or survey format and administer to selected students, compile the results. These students, your sample population, might be college students, or they might be public school students or both.

The Inquiry Approach

All teaching involves the setting up of learning situations for the learner. The learning experience can only be meaningful if there is total involvement of the student in the planned process. Learning is only accomplished when knowledge is acted upon to change a life.

Inquiry is a learn-by-doing method in which each student finds out for himself. He uses the inductive method and goes from the particular problem to the general solution. In the inquiry-centered approach the learner answers the questions WHY and HOW rather than the traditional WHO, WHAT and WHEN. Through this approach students (1) gain basic knowledge, (2) develop the ability to ask questions, (3) develop attitudes and value judgements, and (4) adopt new behavior patterns.

How does this method of teaching work?

1. Students observe and study. Encourage students to gather as much resource material as possible.
2. Students analyze the text and related materials, then individually or in groups they determine what the material is saying.
3. Students classify the material -- break the materials into logical groupings.
4. Students generalize their findings -- find general concepts and solutions.
5. Students compare and evaluate their findings -- they do not have to reach the same solutions but should be able to defend the position they have reached.

During the inquiry process the teacher acts as a guide and resource person and encourages, clarifies, points out, and in every way possible aids the learning process.

What teaching strategies should you use? Almost any strategy can be adapted for use with the inquiry-centered approach. (Teachers desiring to gain expertise in the use of inquiry teaching will find the following book most helpful: Inquiry in the Social Studies, by Barry K. Beyer, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971.) Lending themselves especially to the inquiry-centered approach are roleplaying, case studies, simulation games, and buzz groups.

Make the utmost use of teaching aids to motivate, to add interest and

understanding, to show relationships, to visualize abstract concepts, and to increase retention of knowledge. Teaching aids may be

VISUAL: pictures, maps, charts, chalk and other drawings, posters, etc.

AUDIO: records, tapes, radio and television (put on cassette for appropriate use), live speeches or talks.

PRINTED: books and pamphlets, articles and essays, newspapers and magazines, and other printed materials.

ACTIVITY: roleplaying, case studies, simulation games, buzz groups, drama, story telling, skits, opinion poll, crafts, field trips, service projects, singing (music), writing, debates, and symposiums.

PROJECTED: overhead transparencies, movies, slides, filmstrips, show and tell, video tape recorder, and closed circuit TV.

A reminder may be in order here -- a teaching aid must be more than an interesting gimmick. It must do something that aids learning.

The key to the inquiry-centered approach to teaching is total involvement of the learner. Involvement is the basis of motivation. What do you do to get students involved, keep them involved, and keep them away from failure and withdrawal?

QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The inquiry approach is one of the more popular approaches to teaching both social studies and science. Why do you think it might be so popular in these areas and less popular in the teaching of mathematics and language arts.
2. Are any of the courses you are now taking in college "Inquiry" courses? Do you think they should be? Why or why not?

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. The inquiry approach to teaching social studies is one of the more challenging of approaches but at the same time one of the more rewarding. You might want to try anticipating some of the challenges or problems you might encounter in using this approach. With a small group of others, brainstorm eight or ten problems you might encounter and suggest several possible solutions for each problem.

The Inter-disciplinary Approach

The realization is beginning to dawn on social studies educators that our students need an ever-broadening view of just how their daily lives are tied in with world events and issues. The content presented in our courses will, hopefully, continue to nourish pride in America and what our country stands for. Included, however, will be knowledge of world events and issues as a means of understanding America and oneself in a world perspective. In today's world of satellite communication, supersonic transport, and growing interdependence it can be no less.

Our traditional social studies courses offerings in both elementary and secondary schools are by their very nature interdisciplinary. Concepts and generalizations from all of the social study disciplines are encountered in courses ranging from geography, history and government, to language, art and music.

As a social studies teacher you will need to focus on teaching skills that will enable you to guide your students in their search for truth. It will be your challenge and privilege to involve them in something they want to know more about -- the world around them.

Social studies teachers are daily confronted with problems of how and what to teach. The problem becomes one of selectivity -- selectivity, of course, within the bounds of the course requirements. We believe that teachers should be allowed considerable flexibility in their approach to curriculum. While teachers strive for increasing objectivity and intellectual honesty, more specific goals ought to include the fostering of cultural self-awareness and cross-cultural understanding. The recent events in Iran represent an unbalanced backlash against " a Western Culture syndrome."

An interdisciplinary approach in our teaching of social studies would seem to present the best opportunity for both cultural self-awareness and cross-cultural understanding. Our own traditions and values -- legal, historical, cultural, economic, political, and linguistic -- can only be effectively taught within an interdisciplinary framework. The history major, the economics major, the political science major -- may each in itself be inadequate preparation for today's teacher directing studies that are interdisciplinary in nature.

In using the interdisciplinary approach, emphasize to the students that curriculum (what they study in school) deals with the world at large and not any one particular subject. We only spell out the disciplines because we have no Einstein to develop a unified theory of society. Your task as a social studies teacher is to help your students discover that each discipline makes a contribution to the understanding of life at large. The learner sees life and society in its many faceted whole with a multi-disciplinary approach.

In a real learning situation content and methodology merge and become indistinguishable. Confront the student with real-life situations. The student should recognize real life.

A caution -- don't rely to much on current events. Our problems today are not new problems. Thinking men through the ages have searched for answers. We have much to learn from man's thinking about these problems in the past. Make use of stories and always encourage the students to put themselves and their ancestors into the picture. Where were your ancestors when this or that took place? What were they doing? Encourage the students to ask, "What makes me like I am?"

Too often the teacher assumes a time and space orientation that the students simply do not have. The concept of the number ten is a good starting point for a time perspective on events that have occured in the past. Ask the students, "How many 'tens' ago was this?" For space orientations ask the students to think of the world as a neighborhood. Use a globe -- here I am; here is the Israeli boy or girl. What direction (as the crow flies) would I travel to get to Israel? How far away is Israel? What part of the 25,000 mile great circle?

We are so well informed that we do not know how to use the information. Try making your approach to teaching social studies problem-oriented. Start with a question. Do poor countries or rich countries have more social problems? What will the students answer? Present this generalization to the students:

ONLY RICH COUNTRIES CAN AFFORD TO HAVE SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Ask the students, "Is this a valid generalization"? Offer proof.
To get thinking started use real-life problems:

Infant mortality -- How handled in the poor country? In the rich country?

Pollution -- How handled in the poor country? In the rich country?

Invariably the students ask the teacher, "What do you think about it"? If you yield to temptation and tell the students what you think, always follow with a word of explanation, "This is how I feel about the problem, not everyone feels the same way."

POTPOURRI OF STRATEGIES

- **Oral History**
- Reading in Content Area
- **Reading in Social Studies**
- **Mainstreaming**
- **Games about North Dakota**
- **Original Student Research**
- **Global Studies**

North Dakota Landscapes by Deb Erickson

Oral History

Providing for social participation presents a great challenge to educators responsible for creating and implementing a social studies curriculum. Social participation refers to those planned experiences in which students use the knowledge, skills, abilities, and values they have developed in social studies classes by moving beyond the confines of the classroom to deal with problems and situations in the "real" world. It is a well known fact that proper knowledge does not necessarily lead to proper action. The problem for social studies teachers has been to find suitable opportunities for students to put into practice the knowledge and skills they have acquired. Oral history offers social studies teachers an excellent means to provide for social participation --the component of social studies education that has traditionally been neglected at both the elementary and secondary school level.

Using Oral History in the Social Studies Classroom

ORAL HISTORY

Guidelines for Doing Oral History

Oral history can play a valuable role in social studies education. Offered here are a few basic guidelines for those teachers who wish to introduce their students to oral history process (Machart, 1979).[1]

Oral History Defined

For those who may be only somewhat familiar with oral history a brief explanation might prove useful.

Much knowledge of historical value to future generations is lost upon the death of people possessing that knowledge. The oral history movement began as a result of this concern, and its goal has been preservation of the significant and interesting historical data. Currently, the procedure used to gather this data is to tape record interviews with people who have something to say of value and interest to the oral historian. When the late Allan Nevis of Columbia University, regarded as the founder of oral history movement in the United States, began conducting interviews with prominent Americans in the pre-tape recorder days of the early 1940's, notes had to be taken during, or immediately after, the interview sessions. The invention of the small, compact and inexpensive cassette recorder has been a great boon to the oral historian.

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[1]Much of the information presented here was included in an article by Machart published in the October, 1979, issue of Social Education.

In the earlier days of the oral history movement it was believed that only well-known persons possessed the type of recollections that would be of value to present and future generations and that conducting interviews was a job only for professionally trained oral historians (Morrissey, 1968). Now it is known that school students can successfully gather oral historical accounts about significant local events and folklore from local residents. For elementary and secondary students, oral history involvement is, perhaps, most practical and valuable when local and family history is its basis.

Suggestions for Successful Implementation of Oral History Projects in Social Studies Classes

Involvement in oral history projects can be a most rewarding social studies activity for social studies students and their teachers. It will help provide variety and ensure active student participation, two necessary ingredients of successful social studies programs.

In every community there are many people who possess knowledge concerning a wide variety of topics suitable for recording family history, tracing the history of a local business, getting first-hand accounts of life in North Dakota during the 1930s depression, exploring the history and traditions of a local school, First World War recollections (of both military veterans and those of the home-front), just to name a few.

The suggestions that follow are based upon the experiences of students and teachers engaged in oral history projects.

1. In elementary classrooms it is essential that the students select specific topics, such as: How did our grand - or great - grandparents celebrate Christmas? Once the topic has been decided upon, it then becomes necessary to secure a list of names of people that are available to furnish first-hand data.

2. For students in the lower elementary grades (1-3) it is more feasible to have the entire class work together on one topic. After the teacher has helped students acquire topical background knowledge the person(s) to be interviewed should be invited to the classroom. Students can then pose the questions that they had developed earlier under the careful guidance of the teacher. In one Red River Valley school, a class of first graders who had been studying the roles played by members of a family invited a seventy year old woman to visit their classroom. They were interested in asking about her work and play activities when she was their age. Their taped interview is rich in details about the everyday life a young girl growing up on a farm in northern Minnesota in the early 1900s. (With the passing of time, the historical value of this tape will grow considerably.)

3. Older elementary students (grade 5 and beyond), after classroom work on how to conduct interviews, can do their own interviewing. With students of this age, taping interviews with older relatives for a study of family life can be highly rewarding. Older students may also choose to gather oral historical accounts of locally significant events or ways of living. For example, several students in one area school decided to interview retired rural school teachers in order to gather and preserve first-hand accounts of what life was like for children who attended those one-room schools (as viewed through the teacher's eyes).

4. Before the interview is conducted the class or individual must decide specifically what is to be learned from the interviewee. A list of questions or topics should be given to the person who is to be interviewed several days in advance. This will permit the person to think about the events of yesterday and check, if necessary, for exact dates, names, or other items that he/she considers important.

5. During the taping of the interview, the interviewee should be made as comfortable as possible. If the interview is taped in a home, the living room usually provides the best atmosphere. If the interview is conducted with a class of students in school, the seating arrangement should be informal and the setting relaxed. At the beginning of the interview it is wise to have the person being interviewed give his/her name, age, and the reason for the interview. This information is important for those who will later listen to and use the tape contents.

6. To obtain tape recordings of good sound quality it is usallly best to use a tape recorder that has an external microphone. Many of the new inexpensive cassette recorders having the built-in microphones do not pick up speech very well unless the speaker is very close the the recorder. A much clearer tape can be made if an external microphone is used, placed directly in front of the speaker. However, a recorder with an internal microphone will often help to make the interviewee feel less anxious, and the interview will be more spontaneous.

7. The interview should last no longer than about one hour. Arrangements for a second taping can be made if one hour proves to be of insufficient time.

8. After the interview has been taped, it is recommended that a typed "word for word" transcript (or an edited version) be prepared. The assistance of parent volunteers is highly recommended for this task.

9. The person who has been interviewed should be asked to sign a release form that indicates the extent to which the taped interview material be used. Hopefully, the interviewee will permit unlimited use of the tape and the transcript. (A sample release form is included at the conclusion of this section.)

10. Students should place copies of their taped interviews and the transcripts in the school library so that other students and classes will have access to them. It should be made known to the community that the tapes exist and are available for anyone to use. Furnishing copies of the tapes and the typed transcripts to the city pulic library and the local historical society should also be considered.

11. Junior and senior high students may with to condense their interviews into magazine format and publish their own local history journal in the successful Foxfire magazine format. This project could be a joint effort of both the social studies and English departments.

Summary

The oral history process offers teachers an exciting way to get social studies students actively involved in a meaningful activity. It provides an activity that helps to deal with a neglected component in most social studies programs--social participation.

Teachers must realize that the quality of the interviews conducted by young students may be viewed as less than satisfactory by the professional oral historian. Nevertheless, much interesting and valuable primary source data can be collected by elementary and secondary students working under the careful guidance of the teacher. While the end result--the taped interview and the typed transcript--will be useful to the students and to others, this is not the most important benefit for students. More valuable is the process to which they have been introduced and the sense of accomplishment that the activity can provide them. Oral history involvement can help students realize that they can and are making a contribution to their community. Involvement in the oral history process will make it possible for students to be able to say: "I'm gathering and recording information about my family's (or community's) history. This is important work, and I'm part of it! After all, helping students become the type of adults who will be willing to play an active role in community, state and national affairs is, perhaps, the main purpose of social studies ed-

ucation in our schools. Oral history is an excellent means to begin building in school students the desire and willlingness to be active and contributing citizens in their communities.

REFERENCES

Machart, Norman C. "Doing Oral History in the Elementary Grades," Social Education 43 (October, 1979): 479-80.

Morrissey, Charles T. "Oral History as a Classroom Tool," Social Education 32 (October, 1968): 546-49.

ORAL HISTORY CONSENT FORM

I, hereby release my taped interview for use by researchers subject to the following conditions:

1) Use by researchers only

2) Open to public

3) To be made of use to researchers and/or public only after _____

4) Special conditions: _____

_____

_____

_____

Signed _____ Signed _____

interviewee interviewer

_____

date

Reading in Content Area

Successful teaching of social studies depends upon bridging the gap between each student's reading/study skills and the textbook's readability level. Bringing the student's comprehension to the textbook's level raises the teacher's effectiveness and increases student achievement. More important--it can make the difference between a student's aversion to social studies and enjoying the subject.

Reading provides much of the information required by secondary social studies students. As an integral part of this reading process, the student applies study skills to understand and react to what has been read. Those with faulty reading/study skills progress poorly and thus develop an aversion to the subject. Therefore social studies instructors must be aware of their role in helping students increase their reading/study skills.

Reading skills instruction shifts emphasis as the student progresses. In the primary grades the student is learning to read. At about the third grade level, the student begins reading to learn. Instruction in decoding and simple comprehension of the early grades gives way to teaching more complex skills. Thus upper elementary students learn to use these earlier reading skills to acquire information.

Reading, however, is more than decoding, or deciphering, letters into sounds and sounds into words. It includes such comprehension skills as:

1. determining the main idea of a passage
2. understanding the sequence of material
3. recognizing passage organization
4. analyzing for inferences and judgements
5. interpreting figurative language, style and tone
6. evaluating the material critically

Though reading instruction should not stop when students enter secondary level, the method usually changes. Instead of teaching reading as a separate subject, reading skills instruction is integrated with the subject areas of math, science, English and social studies.

The reading process involves preparation and application as well as the act of reading. Social studies instructors should understand and work with all the steps. They also need to be aware of the differing reading levels of textbooks as well as individual reading abilities of their students. Knowledge of these differences is based upon diagnosis through: (1) assessment of text readability and (2) evaluation of student's abilities.

Textbook reading level assessment includes analysis of both format and text. In assessing format, the teacher is concerned with whether it will attract the student and help in the assigned reading. These are the points to consider:

1. Is the type style easy to read?
2. Is each page attractively laid out?
3. Is each chapter adequately illustrated and are the illustrations pertinent, clear and easy to follow?
4. Are there such typographical clues as headings and subheadings in distinctive type?
5. Are there marginal notes?
6. Does the table of contents adequately reflect the book's coverage?
7. Is the index useful in finding specific topics?
8. Is there a glossary?
9. Are the glossary definitions understandable at the students' level?
10. Does each chapter include such study helps as an introduction, summary, and follow-up questions?

If you can answer "Yes" to a majority of these questions, you may be surprised at the increased number of students who will read at least part of each assignment.

In assessing text, the teacher is concerned with whether the student will be able to understand the assigned reading. To determine this, textual readability analysis is necessary. This analysis requires application of readability formulas which consider the relationship of word and sentence length to comprehension difficulty. Although there are numerous readability formulas, the Fry graph and cloze procedure (Allington and Strange, 1980) and

the Gunning formula (Laubach and Koschnick, 1976) are among the most popular.

Directions for working out specific readability formulas are given in books on reading in the content area. Since some formulas are not applicable to all reading levels, it is important to read carefully the descriptive data about each formula. Also, each formula result does not correlate exactly with the results of other formulas. Therefore, it is necessary to check how they relate to each other when more than one formula is used.

While textbook readability can be determined prior to the first class meeting, evaluation of students' reading abilities must wait for actual class contact. There are numerous formal, standardized tests to evaluate reading abilities. However, many teachers prefer to construct their own informal inventories which they relate directly to their textbook. A good example of an informal reading inventory is available in Culp and Spann (1979).

Though all students in a particular social studies class may be in the same grade, all are not at the same reading level. To equalize these factors, teachers should try relating textbook reading level to their students' reading abilities through reading and study aids. Reading levels are roughly divided into three broad categories: frustration, instruction, and independent. Depending upon the material and the student's ability, any reader will find himself reading at each of these levels.

At the frustration level the student is unable to understand the material even with help. A student at the instruction level is able to understand the material with help from the teacher either as direct instruction or as supplemental study aids. At the independent level, a student understands the material without help. Students reading at the frustration level need a simpler textbook or more help than the classroom teacher can provide. It is for the students at the instruction level that the supplementary reading/study aids are useful.

The basic reading/study aid is a reading process method. It includes prereading and review skills that foster better understanding and recall of important points in reading assignments. Known as the SQ3R (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review), this aid proceeds through the following sequence:

S = Survey or overview the reading assignment before beginning to read
Q = Turn headings or subheadings into questions in order to read actively and look for specific information
R_1= Read the section to find the answer to the question
R_2= Recite the answer to the question after reading the section, taking notes or underlining important information
R_3= Review the reading assignment just before class and at intervals thereafter to integrate it with prior and subsequent information

This SQ3R reading/study process provides students with an easy method for understanding and recalling their assigned readings. To facilitate practice of this method, various study guides should be provided. Such study guides include:

1. vocabulary enrichment exercises
2. factual questions to elicit specific data
3. inferential questions requiring critical thinking skills
4. exercises to analyze sequence and other organizational features
5. techniques to develop understanding of concepts being taught in the reading assignment or unit

Integrating these reading/study skills into social studies content is the crux of reading in the content area. Preparing and assigning special exercises and guides is only one part of the process. It is necessary to construct plans from the semester overview to the indiviual lesson plan so that reading/study skills are integrated with skills in content acquisition. Therefore, prospective social studies teachers increase their classroom effectiveness by

taking a reading in the content area course.

The following selected bibliography will serve as a resource guide to further study in reading and its applications to the social studies content area.

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Reading and Social Studies

In numerous subject preference studies, social studies has been found to be one of the least liked subjects of the school's curriculum (Machart, 1977). Leading authorities agree that one of the main reasons for the negative attitudes that students have expressed toward social studies is due to the fact that the reading materials used are frequently too difficult for a great percentage of the students. It has been estimated that 25 percent of the high school population of this nation lack the necessary skills needed to read the content subject materials with the comprehensions expected of them (Lunstrum, 1976). Research conducted to determine the readability of social studies textbooks has shown that the reading grade levels are often much higher (two or more years) than the grade level for which the texts are intended (Johnson, 1970).

Roger E. Johnson, a nationally recognized authority on the problem of reading skills in social studies, has listed the following reasons as causes for this problem:

1. Most secondary teachers have never had any training in the teaching of reading.
2. Our English language is extremely difficult to read.

3. The reading level of many grade 7-12 textbooks is too high for the intended reader.
4. The new textbooks and new trends in social studies work together to cause further problems. For example:
   a. The use of familiar concepts in unfamiliar content
   b. The use of new concepts for which the teachers do not have adequate background
   c. The use of primary source material
5. Most teachers lack an understanding of what reading skills are important to social studies and how to integrate them into their teaching.
6. The national "back to the basics" movement (Johnson, 1976).

While many other means of presenting information to social studies students are used today (lecture, filmstrips, movies, tapes, etc.) the textbook remains a key vehicle. The purpose of this article is to provide several practical suggestions for social studies teachers (most specifically for those who teach junior and senior high students) in their efforts to help students get the most from the assigned textbook or supplementary reading materials because (like it or not) social studies teachers need also to teach reading skills.

Suggestions for Social Studies Teachers

1. Determine the reading level of each student. This can be obtained in a number of ways. One of the quickest is to use any one of a number of published informal reading inventories. They are easy to administer usually taking no longer than 5-10 minutes per student. (Ask your school's reading specialist for help, if needed.) Basically, the procedure consists of having the student read orally a short paragraph, written at a certain grade level, while the teacher records any oral reading errors that are made. Then a series of questions are asked pertaining to the papagraph content. The number of oral errors made and questions correctly answered determine whether the student can read adequately the material written at that particular reading grade level.

2. Determine the reading level of the textbook or other materials that are being used. The Fry Formula is one that is easily applied (see end of section for details).

3. There are several ways available to social studies teachers to identify those students who will experience difficulty in reading the textbook. One method that teachers may wish to use at the beginning of the school year or semester to assess the students' ability to read the textbook is to have all students read short selections taken from the first, middle, and last portion of the textbook. Then the students can be given teacher prepared questions to answer in writing. It will soon be evident to the teacher which students cannot read the textbooks with adequate comprehension. Further testing of those students may be necessary.

Another method is the use of the "cloze procedure." Simply put, it consists of selecting at random a portion of the text beginning with a new paragraph and running for about 250 words. This portion of the text is then duplicated, but every fifth word is deleted. Blank lines of equal length replace the deleted words. The reader is then asked to read the selection and write in the missing words. The rate of success in supplying the deleted words determines the degree of difficulty of that reading material for the student. If the student supplies between 44-57 percent of the missing words it means that the material is written at his/her instructional reading level; if less than 44 percent of the correct words are supplied this indicates it is written at the student's frustrational level. If the percentage of missing words

correctly supplied exceeds 57 percent it indicates that the material is written at the student's independent reading level.

When those students who cannot successfully cope with the reading material are identified it then becomes the responsibility of the teacher to make other provisions. Some ways available to the teacher to help students when the textbook (or other instructional materials) is found to be too difficult are

a. Tape record readings of those portions of the text that are of greatest importance to the student. The student can listen to the tape or listen while reading along in the textbook.

b. The teacher can re-write in simpler language those portions of the textbook containing key information. Another method which I have observed several social studies teachers using successfully is to have some of the more talented readers and writers in the class re-write portions of the textbook. If the best efforts are saved and duplicated the teacher can have, within a semester or two, many lessons beautifully written on an appropriate reading level for the less able readers of the class.

c. Find materials on the same topic that are written on an easier reading level. For example, if an 11th grade class is studying the Civil War, that portion of a lower grade textbook pertaining to this conflict can be given to students of lesser reading ability to use as their basic reading assignment. Many excellent historical novels written on an easy reading level but high in interest are now available. These can do much to help poorer readers (all students, for that matter) gain a better sense of a certain historical period. When studying the topic mentioned above two such books that could be used are Across Five Aprils and Rifles for Watie. If the teacher keeps "one eye open" for materials written on an easier reading level he or she will soon find that it is not such a formidable task to assemble such a collection as one might first imagine.

d. Assign a good reader to work with a student who has not developed adequate reading skills to handle the reading assignment. The good reader can read aloud to his or her partner who in turn can repeat the main points of the reading. The student partner can then write down what has been said. This allows the successful "language experience" approach to be profitably used by students of all ages.

4. Before students are asked to read their social studies assignments furnish them with a purpose for reading. Ask them questions that will be answered by their reading. Ask them what they personally want to find out about the lesson topic. Another method is to have students write an answer, after reading, to a question(s) that is raised before they read. Burron (1976) has identified a hierarchy of purposes for reading. They are listed here in ascending order of difficulty: a) reading to list simple facts, b) reading to answer fact questions, c) reading to group facts, d) reading to discriminate among facts, e) reading to defend or refute, f) reading to identify a theme, and g) reading to evaluate or react. Burron suggests that the teacher deisgn a diagnostic test consisting of questions for each reading purpose level in order to determine which is consistent with the reader's present level of ability. When this information is known the teacher's prereading questions can be geared to the individual student's reading ability.

5. Introduce new or difficult words before the students read independently. Also, discuss key concepts of the material before they read, as well as after they have completed the reading. It is advisable to use new words and concepts in phrases or sentences printed on the chalkboard or overhead projector.

6. Use pictures, maps, models, diagrams, etc., whenever possible, to introduce vocabulary and to stimulate interest in what the students are about to read.

7. Before the reading begins page through the assignment with the students pointing out key paragraphs, headings, charts, maps, etc. This procedure can do much to increase the students' comprehension of what they read.

8. Before the students read remind them to use context clues to help unlock the meaning of new words or identify known ones. Frequently demonstrate this skill by writing one or two sentences on the chalkboard pointing out how the "words around" an unknown word can help to unlock its meaning.

9. Do not practice the old round-robin method of oral reading in social studies classes. The oral reading should be restricted to reading short portions of the text to support an opinion, clarify an issue, raise a question, or some similar purpose.

10. Use a variety of reading materials such as other textbooks, newspapers, magazines, books, the encyclopedia, etc. Providing variety is an important element to keep in mind in order to obtain and keep student motivation at a high level.

11. If the reading assignment is lengthy, have the students read a portion of it and then discuss its content. After the students have completed the reading, discuss the key concepts, understandings, and generalizations with the students. Ask questions that give the students an opportunity to interpret, analyze, and evaluate what they have read. Ask fewer questions of the lower order (questions that can be answered by orally reading a sentence or two from the textbook).

12. Keep the discussion that follows the reading informal and lively. An aid in accomplishing this is to divide the class into small groups (3-4 students) and supply them with questions to discuss. Encourage a great deal of student interaction. This will heighten the desire of the students to read more carefully in order to be better prepared to take part in an activity that is satisfying to them.

Although this item is listed last it one of the most important in encouraging students to read with understanding.

Conclusion

Reading is, indeed, a problem in the social studies. Many of the new textbooks and other reading materials are more difficult to read than formerly. This is due, in part, to the emphasis on concepts, generalizations, use of primary source materials, and the use of the vocabulary of the various social studies disciplines-all being a part of the "newer" social studies. Students can be helped to better comprehend what they read when given assistance by the teacher. A number of excellent books and articles have recently been written on this topic.

This discussion did not come to grips directly with the topic of writing and thinking skills in the social studies. Beyer (1977) has written an article which should prove to be most useful to social studies teachers which pertains to these two types of basic skills.

The suggestions presented here are not necessarily new to teachers. They are given, rather, as a reminder that many students do experience difficulty in reading their social studies assignments and that there are many ways that social studies teachers can help their students better comprehend what they read, regardless of their present reading ability.

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Discussion Questions

1. Why is it important for teachers to recognize and deal with the reading problem in social studies textbooks?
2. What is the school principal's role in helping students to be able to cope with a social studies textbook that is written beyond his/her instructional level.

Suggested Activities for Preservice Teachers

1. Select a social studies textbook. Check its reading level using Fry's formula. Share the results with other preservice teachers.
2. Find out how to construct a "cloze" reading test to use with a particular social studies textbook. After constructing it, administer it to a student at that grade level for which the textbook is recommended. Share your results with other preservice teachers.

FRY'S READABILITY GRAPH
(not copyrighted)

Directions:

1. Find text samples of 100 words (approximately six).
2. Count the number of sentences per sample.
3. Count the number of syllables per sample.
4. Find the average number of sentences per 100 words from the selected samples.

   Examples: Sample 1 - 6.7 sentences
   Sample 2 - 6.9 sentences
   Sample 3 - 5.8 sentences
   Sample 4 - 5.9 sentences
   Sample 5 - 6.4 sentences
   Sample 6 - 6.3 sentences

$$\frac{6.7 + 6.9 + 5.8 + 5.9 + 6.4 + 6.3}{6} = \frac{38}{6} = 6.33$$

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5. Find the average number of syllables per 100 words from the selected samples.

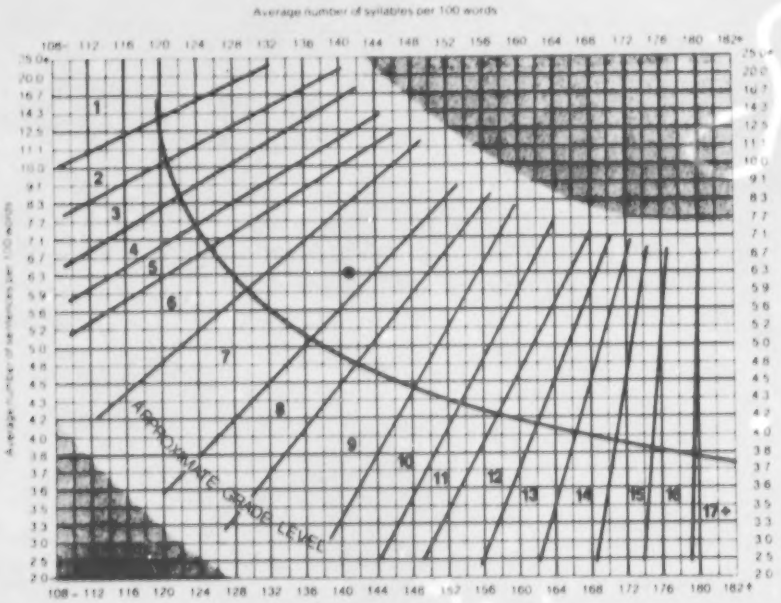
   Examples: Sample 1 - 127 syllables
   Sample 2 - 133 syllables
   Sample 3 - 142 syllables
   Sample 4 - 149 syllables
   Sample 5 - 150 syllables
   Sample 6 - 158 syllables

$$\frac{127 + 133 + 142 + 149 + 150 + 158}{6} = 143$$

6. Using Fry's Graph, plot the intersection of the average number of syllables and the average number of sentences per 100 words.

7. The intersection indicates approximate reading level of the text.

8. The reading level obtained is an instructional reading level.



Mainstreaming

The principle of mainstreaming has potential for radically reorganizing schools, instruction, organizational design, classroom learning environments, and the roles and expectations for teachers and students. Mainstreaming also encompasses another set of dimensions - the direct involvement with and approval of parents in instructional decisions that affect their children (Herlihy and Herlihy, 1980).

The "Education for all Handicapped Children Act of 1975," commonly referred to as Public Law 94-142, requires that (1) all handicapped children,

ages 3-21 be provided with a free and appropriate public school education, (2) the education should take place in the "least restrictive" environment, (3) individualized educational plans (IEP) need to be developed for each handicapped child, (4) "due process" safe guards must be established to protect the rights of handicapped students (5) the testing and evaluation of handicapped children must be non-discriminatory, and (6) teachers must be trained to implement instruction.

Each of the six provisions of P.L. 94-142 has potential for radically changing the process of education. The provision calling for an Individualized Educational Plan (IEP) for each child, however, may have the greatest impact on the teaching that goes on in individual classrooms. The IEP is intended to provide . . .

> specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parent, to meet the unique needs of the handicapped child, including classroom instruction, instruction in physical education, home instruction, and instruction in hospitals and institutions (Federal Register, 1977, P 42480).

More specifically, the IEP must contain:

1. A statement concerning the students present educational status. This statement is to be based on standardized tests, informal assessments, school reports, and physical or medical data. The statement should describe the student as completely as possible.
2. A listing of the goals the student might reasonably expect to accomplish during the school year.
3. A listing of the short term or instructional objectives established for the student.
4. A statement specifying the instructional and other services the student will receive.
5. An estimate of the amount of time a handicapped child will spend in the regular classroom.
6. Dates for initiating specific services and estimates of duration.
7. Descriptions of evaluation procedures.
8. "Due process" provisions for review and assessment of the students program by parents, by the student, or by legal guardians.

The type of very detailed planning outlined in points 1-6 above is only required for handicapped children but as more and more handicapped children are "mainstreamed" or integrated into the regular classrooms the process of individualizing and personalizing instruction may come to find greater levels of acceptance on the part of regular classroom teachers. This may be especially true in social studies classrooms in that more of the handicapped students will, because of the nature of the content, be integrated or "mainstreamed" into social studies classes.

While no specific format is required for the IEP, a sample form suggested by the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction is included on the following pages.[2]

REFERENCES

Herlihy, John G., and Myra T. Herlihy, "Why Mainstreaming?" Mainstreaming in the Social Studies. (Ed) NCSS Bulletin #62, Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1980.

[2]Schmidt, Ida. Procedures to Guarantee an Individualized Education Program for Each Handicapped Student. Bismarck, North Dakota: Department of Public Instruction, 1978.

SPECIAL EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
Howard J. Snortland, Superintendent
Bismarck, ND 58505

INDIVIDUALIZED EDUCATION PROGRAM PLAN

To the parents of _____ Age _____

Grade or Classroom _____ Date _____

School District _____

_____

This plan gives an overview of your child's education program with emphasis on the special needs of your child which require special education and related services.

☐ I/we approve Individualized Education Program Plan

_____
PARENT/GUARDIAN SIGNATURE

☐ I/we attended ☐ did not attend the Individualized Education Plan meeting held on _____.
(DATE)

Date _____

Address _____

_____

PART I. Proposed Plan for Special Education and Related Services:

A. Type of special education services (List under 1, 2, etc. each special class, special school, resource teacher, speech/language treatment, etc.)

1. _____ Starting Date _____

Anticipated time: full year _____ part of year _____ hours/week _____

2. _____ Starting Date _____

Anticipated time: full year _____ part of year _____ hours/week _____

(Proceed with 3, 4, etc. for each special education service being provided the student. Then continue to B. — Related Services. Attach pages as needed).

B. Related Services (transportation/lodging, physical therapy, recreational therapy, equipment, etc.)

Describe below the nature and extent of each related service including hours per week for each; describe type and frequency of transportation, lodging, etc.

1. _____ Starting Date _____

Anticipated time: full year _____ part of year _____ hours/week _____

By whom will this related service be given? _____

2. _____ Starting Date _____

Anticipated time: full year _____ part of year _____ hours/week _____

By whom will this related service be given? _____

(Proceed with 3, 4, etc. for each related service being provided the student, attach pages as needed.)

C. Regular Education Program

Your child will receive all appropriate aspects of the regular education program and services to which all students in this school are entitled. The teachers below (regular classroom and special teachers of art, music, physical education, etc.) have seen this program plan and will participate in continued planning and implementing of the student's program. Special modifications which they are providing for your child are included in the selected goals and objectives in Part II of this plan.

Teacher's Names (Signature may be requested.)	Position	Type of Program (adapted, integrated, etc. Physical education must be provided for all students and the type of program specified.)	Extent of Time
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

PART II. Program Plan:

The education program planning committee or teachers may send parents more specific information or planning reports within six weeks.

Each statement following identification of a problem area (See A — Problem 1, Describe) is the basis for selecting goals for the student. It includes the student's present level of educational performance in academic, social, or other aspects of functioning. The statement should summarize the observations of the teachers and evaluation of data, medical, and other information.

The problem areas are those characteristics which identify the unique functioning of the student. Placement in special education is dependent on the identification of these characteristics.

Begin with Problem Area 1 and proceed on separate pages with other identified problems.

A. Problem Area 1 _____

1. Describe the problem area in terms of the child's functioning:

2. Goal statements:

3. Short-term objectives:

4. Example of daily instructional objectives, activities, materials, equipment:

5. Personnel responsible for carrying out this goal:

Proceed to Problem Area 2, 3, etc. using the format above for each problem area. Attach sheets as needed.

IEP planning meeting on _____ attended by:
(DATE)

_____ _____
SIGNATURE POSITION

_____ _____
SIGNATURE POSITION

_____ _____
SIGNATURE POSITION

Team Leader _____
SIGNATURE

_____
POSITION

ANNUAL REVIEW OF EDUCATION PLACEMENT

To inform parents that the annual review of their child's educational placement is scheduled and to invite their participation; to serve as annual notification of the parent's right to review school records.

Date _____

Dear Parent:

It has been almost one school year since your child was placed in his/her present educational program. In order to evaluate how well suited the program is to his/her needs, we have scheduled a review.

The review will take place on *(day)*, *(date)* at *(time)* at *(place)*. We would like to invite you to be present during this review. If the scheduled time is not convenient, please contact me immediately so that another time can be arranged.

The following procedures will occur: (List what will happen.)

If you cannot attend this review, we will send you the results and recommendations.

It is your right to: (1) go over all records related to the annual review; any school records may be copied at minimum cost to you; (2) to go over the procedures to be used in the review; and (3) to be fully informed of the results of the review.

Sincerely,

_____

_____
(TELEPHONE NUMBER)

(USE SCHOOL STATIONERY)

Games About North Dakota

The use of games and simulations has become a fairly common supplement to instruction in many social studies classrooms in the state. One junior high school social studies class in Grand Forks, for instance, spends most of the month of April each year in simulating a criminal court proceeding. This simulation begins by the teacher assigning the role of the "offender" to one of the students in class. The "offender," who is unknown to the rest of the class, "simulates" some criminal offence that has been pre-determined by the teacher. This offence is "simulated" in full view of several witness, complaints are then filed, a jury expanded, the case tried, and a verdict rendered.

Another class of students in an elementary school in Minot was especially fond of playing the North Dakota Game (see description of game on following pages) and individual class members took great delight in challenging visitors to their classroom to a "Game of North Dakota." The students, who had become "experts" on North Dakota, invariably won and many of the visitors who were life-long residents of the state left the classroom perhaps just slightly embarrassed at having been beaten by fourth grade students. Most of the visitors though, left the classroom rather impressed with the students knowledge of the state. Among the more frequent visitors to the classroom was the elementary principal who enjoyed stopping by once in a while and challenging one of the students. He won his share of games but the students also won their share.

Another teacher in one of the smaller schools of the state, uses a simple "card game of the states" to teach some "place-geography." She uses a deck of 52 cards with the name of one of the states and an outline map of that state on each of the 50 cards, two free cards complete the deck. Points are also assigned to each of the states depending on the size of their congressional delegation. The games uses adjacent state as pairs or states that touch (i.e. have common borders, as runs of three). Several children's card games such as old maid, go to the dump, or concentration can be played with the deck, as well as more advanced games such as gin rummy.

While the relative effectiveness of the use of games and simulations in social studies education is difficult to prove conclusively one way or the other, a number of claims are made in terms of their effectiveness. These claims usually include:

1. Games are innately enjoyable and consequently students bring high levels of motivation to the playing of an educational game.
2. Games can teach about cooperating and also competition and provide students with appropriate opportunities for both.
3. Games can help students develop empathy, efficacy and are often more effective in developing positive attitudes than a more cognitive or traditional approach.
4. Games can provide an atmosphere that is less threatening than many other forms of instruction.
5. Games have a capacity to challenge both "bright" and "not as bright" students.

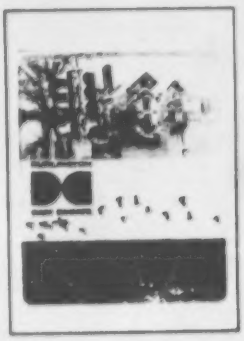
A very large number of educational games are available through commercial sources and five games that deal with North Dakota are described later in this article but perhaps the most effective games are those produced by classroom teachers for their own students. The construction of an educational game or simulation is probably more of an artistic than scientific process. Some of the points listed below, however, might be useful in considering when developing "teacher-made" games.

1. Select the content that you want to incorporate into a game or simulation.

2. Decide on the objective(s) for the game or simulation - what do you want students to learn or experience.
3. Decide on the basic format - will your objectives best be met through a game or a simulation.
   a. Games - board games, card games, TV show games - monopoly, rummy to tell the truth, etc.
   b. Simulations - mock courts, legislative session, production lines, bartering, or other simulating of some type of social process or institution.
4. Develop instructions and rules for play.
5. Develop win criteria.
6. Decide how the game can most effectively be used (i.e. small group(s), whole class, interest center, supplement to instruction, culminating activity, etc.). Revise the game if it doesn't meet your expectations.
7. Decide how game can be critiqued or evaluated.

Descriptions of five educational games or simulations dealing with various aspects of North Dakota are included below. These descriptions have been taken directly from The Whole State Catalog for North Dakota which is available from the State Historical Society, Bismarck, North Dakota.

Burlington Dam Debate



The Burlington Dam Debate consists of a 9x12 firm box which contains a set of seven character profile cards, a 20 page composite newspaper containing articles concerning flooding beginning in 1904, a teacher's manual and a printed name tag for each "witness." The ideas and concepts considered in the developed materials range from the social to the natural sciences and can be used for classes in either area.

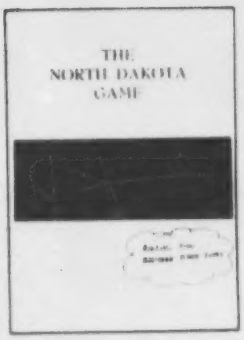
The Simulated Situation: The Congress of the U.S. is faced with proposed legislation to eliminate flooding problems along the Souris River. Large sums of money are involved and Congressmen are under pressure from several interest groups. The decision is made to set up a joint Congressional Committee to examine the various alternatives. At the first meeting of the joint committee in Washington, it becomes apparent that several members have never visited the Northern Great Plains and many know very little about local attitudes, climate or geography. For that reason the decision is made to hold a Congressional hearing at Burlington, North Dakota. A town hall is reserved and witnesses representing several points of view are called to testify.

The Witnesses: Seven four page folders containing text, pictures and cartoons are used to summarize the views of each "witness." Witnesses include:

Mayor Urban - a local mayor
Will B. Wt - President of the "Friends to Save the Valley"
Dr. E. Cology - Professor of Ecology
Colonel Alternatives - Regional director of the Army Corps of Engineers
Mrs. Saska Toba - A Canadian citizen
Mrs. Sally Shadeseeker - A flood plain resident
Mr. I. M. Rural - A farmer living upstream from the proposed dam site

Copies of the "Burlington Dam Debate" are available at cost ($6) by writing Dr. Clark Markell, Director Environmental Education Project, Minot Sate College, Minot, North Dakota, 58701.

North Dakota Game



The North Dakota Games has been developed for students in the upper elementary grades but younger or older students may also enjoy playing the game. The game has been designed so that students not only become knowledgeable about the state, but area also introduced to the various social science disciplines (History, Geography, Government, Sociology, Economics and Anthropology).

Students playing the game move along the game board, which consists of an outline of North Dakota. The students may follow rivers, highways, or railroads to reach their destination.

The game can be played by teams or by individuals and a system of challenges is also used to heighten interest in the game.

A favorite question and one that often prompts students to do some additional research follows:

ANTHROPOLOGY

Which of the following animals were not hunted by the original inhabitants of the area now known as the state of North Dakota?

(a) mammoths, (b) bison, (c) camels, (d) saber tooth cat, (e) pheasant.

ANSWER: All of the animals listed above were native to North America except the Chinese Ring Neck Pheasant.

The North Dakota Game is available from Northern School Supply, P. O. Box 2627, Fargo, North Dakota, 58102, for $3.95.

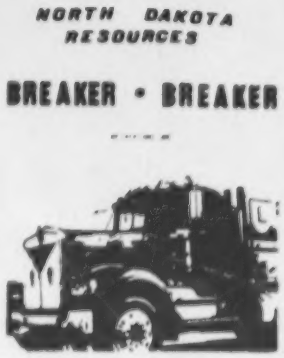
North Dakota Legislative Game

The North Dakota Legislative Game is a simulation of the North Dakota legislative assembly. By playing the game students become familiar with both the legislative process and the issues which are likely to confront legislators during the next legislative assembly.

The game consists of three separate simulations and can be used with upper elementary, junior high or high school students. In "Simulation I," students play the role of elected representatives and try to win re-election by having bills passed which are favorable to the constituents in their district..."the folks back home." In "Simulation II," students again play the role of elected representatives, but this time they vote their conscience and attempt to pass legislation that would be beneficial to people throughout the entire legislative process and allows students to work through the major issues which will confront our state legislators.

The game is available from Northern School Supply, P.O. Box 2627, Fargo, North Dakota, 58102, for $3.95.

Breaker-Breaker



Students playing Breaker-Breaker purchase products from various sections of the state and then transport these products to processing centers or distribution centers in North Dakota. In the process students learn some of the major state products and also learn some place geography.

Students fill out Trip Tickets for each product delivered, plan their routes, and sell their products, hopefully at a profit.

Four separate game boards are included in each booklet along with Breaker Dollars, pictures of Kenworth, Peterbuilt, etc. trucks to be used as individual player pieces, and directions for assembly and playing the game.

The game is available through Northern School Supply, P.O. Box 2672, Fargo, North Dakota, 58102, for $4.95.

The Great Plains Game

The Great Plains Game simulates conditions that existed in parts of North Dakota and on the Great Plains near the turn of the century. At this time three distinct cultures were vying for territory and influence in the Great Plains area. The three cultures consisted of the cattle culture, the farming culture, and Indian culture(s). Consequently students playing the game play the roles of cattlemen, homesteaders, or Indians.

The game is played on a playing board which represents the Great Plains area, including North Dakota. Students playing the role of cattlemen start in Texas and attempt to drive their herds to market in either Abiline or Dodge City or they may choose to drive them to open range in the north along the proposed National Cattle Trail. Homesteaders start from St. Louis and attempt to either homestead on the Great Plains or to get to the West Coast following either the Santa Fe Trail or the Oregon Trail. Indians start to protect their home lands or to join up with other tribes.

A series of conflicts ensue as three cultures come in contact with each other on the Great Plains and students playing the game get a more personal feeling for the changes that were occuring on the Great Plains at this time. In addition, students learn many concepts related to history, geography, economics and the other social sciences.

The game is available through Northern School Supply, P.O. Box 2627, Fargo, North Dakota, 58102, for $3.95.

Discussion Questions

1. A number of "claims" are made for the effectiveness of games and simulations. Of all the claims made, which one seems the most reasonable or legitimate to you and why? Which claim seems most tenuous, and why?

2. Of the five publications described in this article, which are possible examples of games and which are probably simulations? What is the difference

between a simulation and a game?

Suggested Activities for Preservice Teachers

1. Conduct classroom research to:
   a. Determine the average or mean of states that the students of the class are able to correctly locate on the blank map below.

   b. Construct a number of decks of "The Card Game of the States" as described in this article.
   c. In groups of 2-3 players, play "The Card Game of the States" the first ten minutes of each class for several days.
   d. Re-administer the examination concerning location of states. Compute classroom mean and compare results.
2. Develop a game or simulation using some part of the content from the project STUDY Booklets listed in the appendices.

Original Student Research

The following classroom unit was developed several years ago by a Minnesota teacher, Roger Oman, from Duluth. While this unit was developed for sixth grade students, it will become apparent to social studies teachers that this activity can be modified easily to use with older and younger students.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

This activity has been used in many North Dakota social studies classrooms and has been found to be a very popular activity with students. It provides practice in using social studies, as well as offering an excellent medium for teaching many social studies skills and processes.

I. RATIONALE

By the intermediate grades, most students have done research where they look up information in encyclopedias or other sources. This original project allows students to select topics of their choice and present information which has not been previously been published.

II. OBJECTIVES

1. To learn what research is, why it is done, and how to use basic research skills.
2. To become aware of how a student's classmates behave.

III. MATERIALS

Torrance, E. Paul, and R. E. Myers. Teaching Gifted Elementary Pupils How to Do Research. Minneapolis, Minnesota: Perceptive Publishing Company, 1962.

IV. INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Discuss what occupations use research to make their products better, and discuss why people do research. There are so many things we don't know that we want and need to know. Man has always been curious about the world around him.

Discuss the meaning of the term, research. It is an important process for carrying out the scientific method and applies every possible test to get at the truth. Emphasis is on testing rather than proving and data are carefully recorded and reported. Research workers must study hard and be willing to spend long hours searching for truth.

V. SEQUENCE OF ACTIVITIES

This unit should be spread over at least two weeks.

FIRST DAY

Allow students to each choose a type of behavior on which they would like to survey their classmates. Examples: favorite animals, types of music, colors, cars, travel, magazines, TV programs, pastimes, types of books, chores at home, after-school activities, hobbies, types of math, sports, pets, records, dances, newspaper reading, friends, subjects in school, vocations, study habits, athletes, vacations, science topics, musical instruments, etc. Have students write a survey questionnaire on their topics. Afther the teacher and/or the class have added additional choices, the students may recopy it with a pen or typewriter onto a ditto master for duplication and distribution to the whole class.

Example of questionnaire:

RESEARCH PROJECT ON MUSICAL TASTES OF 6TH GRADERS - by John Doe

Please answer the following questions honestly and completely. Do not sign your name. The results will be used in a research project I'm writing.

1. Are you a boy _____ or girl _____?

2. Check all the kinds of music to which you like to listen to on radio, TV, and record players. (list kinds)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

3. What types of instruments can you play?

4. Do you usually enjoy singing with other students? Yes _____ No _____

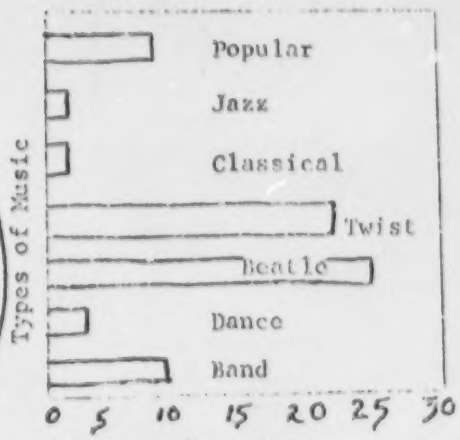
SECOND DAY
Pass out the duplicated survey sheets to the class for their honest and complete responses.
After collecting the completed surveys, allow students to tabulate the total responses on a blank survey sheet.

THIRD - FIFTH DAY
Teach the children how show their tabulated responses on circle, bar, line, and picture graphs. Students should make 1-3 graphs of each kind - only one graph on a page. Circle graphs are the most complicated to construct and are most suitable for students who are sixth graders and beyond.

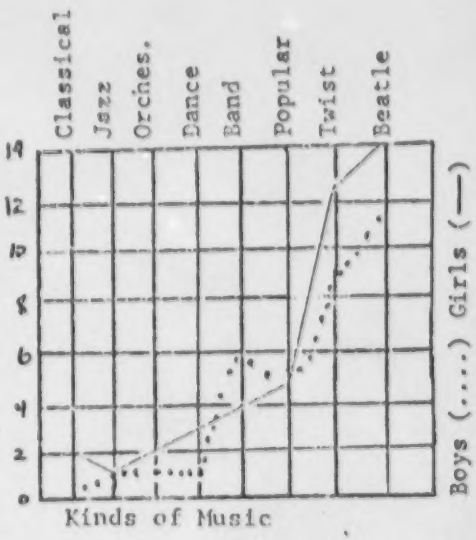
RESULTS OF RESEARCH PROJECT ON MUSICAL TASTES

Istruments Which Students Play

Kinds of Music to Which Students Enjoy Listening



Boys Versus Girls Tastes in Music



SIXTH DAY
Teach students to find the mean, median, and mode of the number of responses that were checked. Then help the students interpret the results and draw some conclusions from the mean, median, and mode.

Mean	Median	Mode
(Add and divide) (Find average)	(Middle ranked person)	(Choice of largest number of people)

SEVENTH - NINTH DAY
Present the scientific method of doing research and compare the steps with this project. Steps include:
A. Identify and state the problem. (What do we want to find?)

B. Make many hypotheses or guesses using available facts.
C. Collect, organize, and analyze the data.
D. Draw some conclusions from your results.
E. Verify, reject, or change the guesses on the basis of additional information.
F. Tell others of your results. (Written research report)

A student's written research booklet might include the following items:

1. Front cover - clever title, student's name, nicely designed.
2. Title page - name of project, student's name, school, grade, teacher's name, and maybe a picture. Place "copyright" date on the reverse side.
3. Table of contents
4. Purpose of study - Why did you perform the experiment? What was it that you didn't know? What were you trying to find out?
5. Procedures - What was done? Who performed the experiment? What materials did they use? Who were the subjects? How many were there? What did the experimenter do and what did the subjects do? These things should be described in such a way that someone else could perform the experiment and obtain similar results.
6. Sample questionnaire containing tabulated results - Students may wish to include one questionnaire containing boys' results and one containing girls' results.
7. Graphs showing results - Include at least one each of bar graph, circle graph, picture graph, and line graph.
8. Mean, median, and mode
9. Conclusions - What did you find out? What does it all add up to? What can you be reasonably certain about? How certain can you be? After studying your tabulated results, your graphs, and your mean, median, and mode, list as many conclusions as you can.

VI. CORRECTIVE ACTIVITIES

Correct rough drafts of graphs and other pages before the students are allowed to make final copies.

Points to emphasize are

A. Graphs should be colorful (colored pencils are best), large (one graph per page), and neat (use a ruler).
B. Graphs should have a descriptive title, labels on the horizontal and vertical axes, and show accurate information which can be verified by the tabulation of results.
C. Write only on one side of wide lined paper in ink for final copy. Use one inch margins on both edges. Number each page of booklet.
D. Include pictures or drawing throughout your booklet to make it more interesting to read.

VII. ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Each child should share orally with his classmates what he learned from his research project. The oral report should have three parts: beginning (interesting topic sentence telling what was researched), middle (interesting results that you noted), and an ending (concluding statement). Brief notes may be used but reports should not be read.

VIII. EVALUATION

It has been found that most students would prefer a couple of written sentences from the teacher complimenting the student's good points instead of only receiving a letter grade.

IX. FOLLOW-UP ACTIVITIES--DIFFERENT WAYS OF DOING RESEARCH

1. The above project was "Descriptive Research."
   This research describes what is. It is a way of learning the results of experiments conducted by nature and society. This research is concerned with how a person, group, or things behave in the present. It often involves comparing or contrasting two people or things, e.g. boys versus girls.
2. Students may wish to try "Historical Research" (Historiography).
   This research describes what was. It is a way of learning the results of experiments conducted by time. It involves the study of events of out past for purposes that might prove helpful in understanding the present and future. This research is concerned with the change or development of indivduals, practices, movements, or ideas.
3. Students may wish to try "Experimental Research."
   This research describes what will be when certain factors are carefully controlled. It tries to find cause-effect relationships. It involves experiments both in the laboratory and in the fields. It tries to learn the effects of possible changes.
4. A written description of the class project and the survey results could be sent home with students for their parents to read.

Global Studies

Inflation, pollution, trade agreements, crop failures, and population pressure are topics that have been in the news recently. These topics concern the United States as well as the rest of the world because they illustrate the growing interdependence of all nations. This is a current reality, whether we care to acknowledge it or not.

These issues are also important to North Dakota. As, for example, North Dakotans are asked increasingly to share its food and energy resources, the development of a global perspective will become more important. In fact, developing a global perspective might prove to be crucial in analyzing the critical questions of the future.

Former senator William Fulbright (1979) comments:

> Our linguistic and cultural myopia and the casualness with which we take congizance--when we do--of the developed tastes, mannerisms, mores, and languages of other countries are losing us friends, business, and respect in the world...It is clear that in order to play a significant role, more of us will have know languages and understand cultural differences...We need all versions of international, cultural, and educational interchange we can create if the growing parochialism of Americans, both old and young, is to be replaced with knowledge and understanding.

According to the Global Concerns Center (undated brochure):

> The news and advertising media confront us daily with global facts of the world we live in:
> 1. It is a small world. (communication, transportation)
> 2. It is a finite world. (limited, non-renewable resources)
> 3. It is an interdependent world. (trade blocs, defense agreements, mobile citizenship)

4. It is an armed world. (millions spent annually on destructive arms)
5. It is an unequal world. (1/3 developed versus 2/3 underdeveloped)

Recognition of these realities is of obvious concern to the teaching profession; in particular, the social studies but certainly not restricted to it.

The emphasis of this article is not only to suggest the integration of global perspectives throughout the social studies but also to suggest emphasizing the growing interdependence of North Dakota with the rest of the world, where applicable. This is often a good place to start with students since they are more familiar and can easier relate from this smaller perspective.

The need to develop a more international perspective for North Dakotans is borne out by its role in food exporting--an average of three out every four bushels of food produced must be exported. Citing this statistic, Senator Mark Andrews has questioned whether the state has properly broadcast this message among its own citizens as well as the rest of the nation and world.

Another example is in the area of fuel energy--and the role North Dakota coal and oil might play in the future.

These two areas illustrate how North Dakota, as well as the rest of the world, has been and is becoming more interdependent. If our social studies courses are to reflect this reality, an integration of global education is recommended.

"Global education consists of efforts to bring about changes in the content, in the methods, and in the social context of education in order to better prepare students for citizenship in a global age (Anderson, 1979, p. 428).

This definition includes three major propositions that have far reaching implications for education. These are

1. The students now in the nation's schools are becoming citizens within the context of a global era in human history.
2. The demands of citizenship in a global age call for the development of competencies that have not been traditionally emphasized by schools.
3. Certain changes must take place in the content, in the methods, and in the social context of education if schools are to become more effective agents of citizen education in a global age (Anderson, 1979, pp. 428-29).

A project co-sponsored by the Kettering Foundation and the North Central Association offer guidelines for using education as a means for instilling a global perspective. Learning goals are tested under four broad areas of understanding or themes. The themes plus sample goals are

1. Valuing diversity
   Sample goal: Becoming aware that to know alternative viewpoints is to expand one's repertoire of choices.
2. Understanding the world as an interdependent system
   Sample goal: Understanding that actions often lead to consequences which ramify over time.
3. Developing effective working relationships with others
   Sample goal: Withholding judgement until gaining enough evidence to make one.
4. Understanding prevailing world conditions, the process of change, and emerging trends
   Sample goal: Identifying and understanding the kinds of forces that can cause social, political, economic, technological, and environmental changes.

Schools cannot be expected to do it all. Increased foreign news coverage by the various media is important to improve global perspectives. Multinational businesses, agriculture, entertainment, sports, and science are areas which have engaged growing numbers of Americans with contacts across national boundaries. These contacts need to be encouraged to accept a role in making Americans aware of the interdependence of all people.

It would be a mistake for educators to assume that the answer is another new course. "Global Perspectives" as the title of a course in a curriculum could be but a little short of ridiculous because the topic is so vast. What is needed, however, is a change of emphasis within existing courses, the aim of which should be twofold: to add to the student's information of cultures, languages, problems, and concepts of people outside the United States, and to break down the narrow provincialism that afflicts many Americans.

Global perspectives--what will you, as a social studies teacher, do to help students acquire them?

References and Recommended Resources

A - V Program (and material) - "Foreign Culture, Food Policies, U.S. Actions and North Dakota Implication" is an audio-visual program in Global Education prepared for the teachers of North Dakota by the Association of North Dakota Geographers and the U.S. Department of Education and produced at the University of North Dakota's campus in Grand Forks. This kit uses a geographic perspective to a major issue of concern for North Dakotans: international food trade. Materials include an 80 slide presentation with script, tape cassette, guide to workshop planning, and additional materials including maps. The kit was designed to be integrated into existing classes. The materials include case studies using Columbia, China, the Soviet Union, and North Africa. Each North Dakota school received the kit (Fall 1980). Copies are also available at Teacher Centers in the state.

Book - Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age: An Exploration of the Meaning and Significance of Global Education by Lee Anderson, 1979. Available from Mid-American Program for Global Perspective in Education, Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47405. This very thorough and comprehensive work discusses the meaning of social education including historical examples and graphs--highly recommended for building a strong background in the need for a background to the global education movement.

Pamphlets (at present time these are free of charge) -

"Global Perspectives--Questions People Ask" from Global Perspectives in Education (see below for address)

"The World and You, Global Education Is An Answer" from Town Affiliation Association of the U.S., Inc., Suite 424-26, 1625 Eye Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006.

"Ten Quick Ways to Evaluate Global Education Materials" from COPRED-Peace Education Network, Kent State University, Stopher Hall, Kent, Ohio 44242.

"The Need for Global Education" by Robert Muller, from Global Interdependence Center, 256 South 16 Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19102.

Organizations dealing with Global Perspectives Education

Center for Teaching International Relations, University of Denver, Graduate School of International Studies, Denver, Colorado 80208--A regional service center for Global Perspectives Education which features publications on a wide variety of global issues, including classroom activities, regional newsletter, inservice and workshop training in global education.

Global Perspectives in Education, Inc., 218 East 18 Street, New York, New York 10003--Publishes "Global Perspectives in Education" (an information exchange newsletter), "Intercom" (a series of handbooks dealing with global perspectives), and numerous other resources and materials.

FOREIGN COMPANIES IN NORTH DAKOTA

(Source: North Dakota Business and Industrial Development Dept.)
The following companies are all foreign owned, but do business in North Dakota

Foreign Office	Company	ND Address	Product
Canada	Westeel, Inc.	Fargo	Steel Products
Canada	Morris-Rod Weeder	Minot	Farm Products
Canada	Astro Comm	Walhalla	Communications Equip.
Canada	Husky Dominion	Dickinson	Charcoal Briquettes
Canada	Edwin Scott Ind.	Grand Forks	Apparel
Canada	Smith-Roles, Inc.	Minot	Farm Equipment
Canada	Dahlgren Mfg.	Walhalla	Animal Traps
Canada	Lorich, Inc.	Walhalla	Grain Bins
Canada	Allowy Mfg. Co	Fargo	Farm Equipment
Canada	Dalman Mfg., Inc.	Rugby	Farm Equipment
Canada	Westank, Willock	Williston	Truck Trailers
Canada	Kraus Industries	Fargo	Electronics
Canada	Vanta Batteries	Fargo	Auto Batteries
Canada	Palliser Furniture	Fargo	Furniture
Canada	Leons Mfg., Inc.	Minot	Farm Equipment
Canada	Motor Couch Ind.	Pembina	Buses
Canada	Thunderbird Petroleum	Minot & Williston	Petroleum
West Germany	BMA (Mraschweigische Maschinenbauanstadt)	Minot	Engineering Firm

INTERDEPENDENT FACTS

(Source: President's Commission on Foreign Language and Internation Studies)

1. The U.S. is the fourth largest Spanish-speaking country in the world.
2. One American in six owes his/her employment to foreign trade. Between 1960 and 1970, the number of Americans employed abroad increased by forty percent.
3. More than 20,000,000 foreign tourists visited the U.S. in 1978.
4. The number of foreign students studying in the U.S. today exceeds one quarter million and is projected to reach one million in another decade.
5. One-fifth of the schools in this country do not offer any foreign language --ancient or modern. Only sixteen percent of all high school students are enrolled in such courses at the present time. (The U.S. is the only major country in the world that does not teach a foreign language to all of its people in school.)

NORTH DAKOTA GLOBAL CONNECTIONS QUIZ

(Identify the country)

Life in the contemporary world has become more globalized. This short quiz illustrates some historical and contemporary North Dakota connections to the rest of the world.

_____ 1. North Dakota currently produces about one-sixth of the nation's pinto beans. About 70 percent of that production is exported to _____.

_____ 2. In 1976 the first major foreign sale of wheat from a wheat pool administered by North Dakota's State Mill and Elevator was made to _____.

_____ 3. Durum, the wheat so well suited for macaroni products, came to North Dakota from _____.

_____ 4. Lefse and lutefisk are foods which were introduced to the diet of North Dakota residents by immigrants from _____.

_____ 5. The Marquis de Mores, a colorful and important person in early North Dakota, was an aristocrat from _____.

ANSWERS: 1. Mexico, 2. Russia, 3. Russia, 4. Norway, 5. France

PROJECTS FOR STUDENTS

1. Using source material, formulate one historical and one contemporary question which illustrates a North Dakota connection with the rest of the world (see Global Connections Quiz for examples).
2. Design a student activity which illustrates a North Dakota connection or example of interdependence with another part of the world.
3. Assuming the reality of the "five global facts of the world we live in" (see paragraph four of this section), formulate a discussion question or statement with the rest of the world. For example: (using "it is an unequal world") should North Dakota food and fuel energy resources be used as a tool of American foreign policy?
4. Using the chart "Foreign Companies in North Dakota," pick a company and report on its effect on the state--include information on sales, number of people employed, and why it is located here. For addresses of companies contact: North Dakota Business and Industrial Development Department, 513 East Bismarck Avenue, Bismarck, North Dakota 58505.
5. Formulate an interdependent fact which ties North Dakota to the rest of the world. The chart "Interdependent Facts" may give you some ideas. Be as specific as possible--list sources for any statistics.

SOCIAL SCIENCE CONCEPTS

Sociology
Anthropology
Geography
Economics
Psychology
Political Science
History

North Dakota Landscapes by Deb Erickson

Sociology

Sociology, in very broad terms, involves the study of human behavior in social contexts. This entails the study of the form and function of human groups as they might relate to an understanding of the individual. The topics of sociology range from world wide issues such as world food needs and production to very local issues such as the effect of building new industries in rural communities. As a discipline, sociology encompasses an enormous amount of material and is subdivided into over 65 separate specialties.

North Dakota Sociologic Studies

North Dakota has been the center of some national attention because of the need to develop our nation's energy resources. Coal is abundant in southwestern North Dakota and is of the quality appropriate for conversion to synthetic gas and electricity. As a result, generating facilities are being built and the first coal gasification plant is scheduled for construction near Beulah. The result of this growth has been a "boom town" atmosphere and considerable study as to the effects of rapid growth on rural communities has been under taken. These studies have examined the impact of rapid growth on communities services, local governments, crime rates and people's perception of their own quality of life. Other studies have focused on concerns expressed about the impact of substantial numbers of young single men who are moving into these small communities during the construction phase of this development and the somewhat smaller number of operating workers that will come later.

North Dakota has also been in the unusual position of experiencing a local "bust" during the same period that another part of the state experiences boom. This occured when the U.S. government decided to dismantle the Anti-Ballistic Missle system in Cavalier County in 1975, just days after it had become operational. The rapid growth cycle had been completed and the population had been accomodated with new schools, new sewer systems, housing, more police, businesses and the like. The newcomers left as quickly as they had come leaving businesses without customers, schools without students, apartments without residents and trailer parks with no trailers. The effects of this experience on local residents was studied by a research group from the University of North Dakota, which looked at local attitudes, the communities experience with increased incidences of crime, and various economic factors.

These two studies are typical of the research efforts of sociologists as they study problems related to the people of North Dakota.

Methods in Sociology

The breadth of sociology is such that a variety of methods each find an appropriate place in the discipline. The following are representative of the methods used.

Sample surveys - Mailed questionnaires and interviews are the most common tools used in sociology. Attitudes are measured by directly asking people questions that reflect their attitudes. We then assume that attitudes will relate to behavior.

Direct observation - Observers often spend considerable lengths of time with a group in order to observe them directly. In this case the sociologists

would live with the group under study and deep detailed notes about the events of each day.

Depth interviews - Intensive interviews or long conversations with people in unique situations may be used to develop insights about people in unexplored areas. For example, the role of an undercover agent would be studied most easily with this method.

Simulation - Computer models used to estimate the pattern of events surrounding some initial change are common. Such estimation may be done by human means as well. The impacts of new industries on communities often involve simulating in advance the impacts on schools, housing, shopping, traffic and the like.

Content analysis - The analysis of mass media offers an opportunity for us to use reporters as our observers and their reports as data or to use the media as a contributing agent to peoples stereotypes of people. This involves systematically evaluating the contents of published (or broadcast) media.

Basic Sociological Concepts

A few basic concepts of sociology help to develop a view of the perspective. One of the most basic tenets of sociological thought is that all human behavior occurs within some social structure. That is, our behavior is guided by social structures that vary by time and place. Social structures are characteristically defined in terms of the statuses (or positions) people occupy and their corresponding roles (or behavior that corresponds to the position). An example of a highly formally structured situation is a basketball team containing statuses of guards, forwards and a center. Each of these has in turn a specific role to play in the game. Not all situations are so formally defined, but a structure will exist and our efforts to describe people and/or situations leads us to the use of the concepts of status and role.

Once a social structure has been defined, the rules that govern the behavior of the various roles are known. These rules are categorically labeled norms. Norms vary in the intensity with which they are held and may be broadly broken into folkways and mores. Folkways are of relatively minor importance and involve the customary ways of doing things. When we violate a folkway the response of others will let us know that our behavior was inappropriate, but will not be strong. Mores, on the other hand, are held dearly and violations bring on strong responses. Many mores are formally encoded into criminal law. This constellation of social structure, statuses, roles and norms entails key ingredients for sociological analysis. All situations for human behavior, obvious or not, are considered by sociologists as structured and involving normative behavior. A major key to observing these norms is in their violation. We observe sanctions (punishments and rewards) and infer from these the nature of the rules for a situation. These sanctions may vary from a raised eyebrow or strange look to physical expulsions.

Another basic concept for sociology is culture. Culture refers to the totality of both the material artifacts found in a society and the non-material aspects of society including beliefs, attitudes and values. It is more with the non-material aspects of culture that sociologists are concerned. Beliefs refer to the conceptions of truth and are illustrated for our culture by a basic Judeo-Christian heritage which gives us fundamental conceptions of truth. Attitudes are springboards to actions according to which people are disposed. Exemplary of attitudes is the case of prejudice. People who are strongly prejudiced against any group are likely to respond to them with avoidance or hostility. Values provide us with highly generalized conceptions of the desireable. Some key values in our society include individualism, equality of

opportunity and materialism. These in turn operate to guide our behavior. Distinctive patterns of norms, beliefs, attitudes and values that characterize a particular group within a society constitutes a subculture. Subcultures in our society are many, including groups such as the Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, Hutterites and Indians.

Our cultural and subcultural ties provide us reference points for evaluating the elements of all social systems. A nearly universal tendency exists for people to evaluate their own culture as superior and others as inferior. This is referred to as ethnocentrism. Cultural relativity is promoted by sociologists as an alternative in which the elements of a culture are judged only in the context of the culture in which they occur. Normally this entails a functional analysis to ascertain whether the intended results are present (called manifest functions) and the extent to which either positive or negative by-products occur (called latent functions and dysfunctions respectively).

The complex process by which we internalize the norms, values, attitudes, and beliefs of our culture is the socialization process. We are trained - consciously and unconsciously - by a wide array of agents including family, friends, the schools and mass media. All of these contribute to the formation of us as culture bearing beings by exposing us to behavioral models, sanctioning our conformity and providing us a context for behaving and learning.

Our physical and psychological existence as human beings occurs in interaction with other people in an organized context. That is, in a group context. The groups affecting our lives can be characterized in a variety of ways. We may, for example, talk of membership groups as those in which we clearly have a position (or potential for one). These can be broken down into "in-groups" - those from which we derive the "we" feeling and "out-groups" or those we cast as "they." The existance of out-groups promotes in-group solidarity. Another way of conceptualizing groups is whether they are primary groups - close, personal, intimate friends or secondary groups - detached, impersonal acquaintances. Modern societies are viewed as building a preponderance of secondary groups while humans have an intrinsic need for the affections found in primary groups. Yet another interesting way of viewing groups uses the concept reference group. Reference groups are groups to which we refer for standards of personal conduct. These may be positive or negative and often contain reference individuals as role models for us to emulate.

Social institutions are formed when a complex pattern of activity is established withing a given society. There are several basic social institutions found in all societies that respond to functional requirements of societies. For example, all societies must have some mechanism to replenish their numbers - a task for the institution of family. Similarly, they must provide education for the young - a task for the institutions of education. Other basic institutions include religious, economic and political institutions. Without institutions in these basic areas, societies would not survive.

The social contexts in which people find themselves are influenced by a multitude of factors. The most basic is probably found in the demographic set of factors. That is the population variable. How many are there? What is the age-sex distribution? What is the composition in terms of race, religion, social class, etc? This constitutes the raw material for the formation of human groups and is essentail information. The nature of behavior in small groups and large assemblies is clearly different. How? Why?

As one begins to examine sociological works it becomes evident that social class serves to determine people's behavior by limiting or affecting their life chances. Social classes are viewed as strata or aggregates of people who share economic privelges. This seems to relate to nearly all sociological concerns, affecting the access people have to health care, education, recreation and even life itself. Few other social factors have such far reaching effects as social class.

For Discussion

1. All situations, according to sociologists, are structured. What are the norms for proper conduct
a) in an elevator?
b) at a funeral?
c) in a checkout line at K-Mart?

2. What affect does the size of groups have on people's behavior? Do you behave differently in large classes and small classes? Do the teachers? Why?

3. Socialization continues throughout our lives, often in primarily informal contexts. Reflect on the areas of life in which you are "becoming." Who are the agents of socialization? How are they affecting your behavior?

Exercises

1. Functional Analysis - Select a controversial public issue and conduct an informal functional analysis in class (an example might be "What are the effects of reducing the minimum wage for teenage workers"?) First try to identify the manifest function (intended results). Then try to determine any latent functions (unitended favorable results) or latent dysfunctions (unintended and unfavorable results). There will normally not be any manifest dysfunctions. The affects of reducing the minimum wage for teenage workers.

	Functions	Dysfunctions
Manifest	To increase jobs for youth.	No manifest dysfunctions.
Latent	Holds down costs for employers and prices for consumers.	May displace adult workers with cheaper younger workers, placing families in need.

2. Content Analysis - The images of people are portrayed by media which are considered conducive to attitude formation or reflective of attitudes. Select a media source (magazines, textbooks, etc.) and a subject for portrayal (grandparents, teachers, social workers, housewives, etc.) and systematically evaluate the portrayal of the subject. The use of advertisements works very well. Have each student review materials and tally the observations.
a) Review a sample of material
b) Create a classification - a list of images used
c) Review the balance - using the classsification and obtain a tally of the images used.
d) Discuss the results.

3. Projective tests - Projective questions may be used to illustrate the differences in our expectations of people according to their position or background. Construct these for your class in advance. Give different subjects to the class members and compare the responses.

Eg. Rex volunteered to help at the school carnival. At the carnival he _____.

Rose volunteered to help at the school carnival. At the carnival she _____.

OR

Brian, a minister, has just observed his 10 year old son taking money from his mother's purse. He _____.

Bruce, a plumber, has just observed his 10 year old son taking

money from his mother's purse. He _____.

4. Simulation - One can conduct exercises in simulation by open discussion. These should relate to familiar locations. For example, what would be the consequences of closing the Air Base at Grand Forks? What would be the key areas of impact? This discussion should encompass a social system.

Anthropology

Anthropology is "the study of man" in the generic sense (from ANTHROPOS - man in Greek; LOGIA - the study of in Greek). It is a broadly based social science which endeavors to study all aspects of human experience. Anthropologists seek to explore and describe human experience not in isolation but holistically, in a whole human cultural context. The overall objective is to better understand others and ourselves. Because of this broad scope of interest, there are four major branches or subdivisions of anthropology: cultural anthropology, linguistics, physical anthropology, and archaeology.

Cultural anthropology focuses primarily on the study of contemporary culture and social groups throughout the world although this interest does not preclude the study of past cultures. Ethnography is the means by which anthropologists systematically describe present-day cultures, and ethnology provides a comparison of those descriptions. The ultimate goal of this research is to discover patterns of human behavior in groups.

The subdivision of linguistics is concerned with descriptions, comparisons and historical developments of human language. Anthropological linguistics are also interested in the interaction among speech, behavior, and thought processes in cultural contexts.

Physical anthropologists are involved in the study of human development physically, biologically, and genetically. They examine and analyze the fossil record of proto-Homosapien and Homosapien remains in order to reconstruct human evolutionary development. Living human populations are studied for variation, and non-human primate behavior and development are examined as well.

Archaeology is the study of past cultures, specifically prehistoric and to some extent classical human groups. The focus of study is on the remains of material culture, the artifacts which were fashioned or manipulated by human beings of the past. They attempt to reconstruct the cultural evolution of humans in a wide variety of settings.

None of the four major subdivisions of anthropology are wholly discrete. Anthropologists in each area must rely on and share information, concepts, and methodology in the other areas in order to maintain the comparative and holistic approach of studying people. In addition, anthropologists must work with other academic disciplines. Cultural anthropologists may occasionally borrow methods of research developed in sociology, economics, or political science. Anthropological linguistics may work closely with other language specialists. Physical anthropologists may need the expertise of geologists, paleontologists, pathologists, biologists, and geneticists. Archaeologists may need to consult with soil specialists, geologists, chemists, or botanists. Conversely, anthropologists may contribute important information to these other fields. Anthropologists differ from these other groups of academic specialists in their attempt to relate specific phenomena to other aspects of human experience. For instance, a cultural anthropologist concerned with the political organization of a culture will relate the phenomena to other aspects of the culture, such as kinship, economics, or marriage patterns. In this way, anthropologists can preserve a holistic perspective. Finally, the are, within the four major

subdivisions, further specializations which may narrow the focus of interest such as economic anthropologist in cultural anthropology or which may combine interests such as a medical anthropologist who relies on cultural and physical anthropology.

Although some of the subjects of interest in anthropology may have existed in human minds and records for ages, the field of anthropology itself is a relatively recent development. The concern for the subjects of anthropology intensified with the Western European colonial expansion throughout the world, peaking in the nineteenth century. While early anthropologists of this period were mainly fascinated with the "exotic" and "strange" behavior of previously unknown peoples in the world, a few scholars such as E. B. Tyler and Lewis Henry Morgan attempted some systemization of information. The early anthropologists depended mostly on missionaries and traders who had visited these distant peoples for descriptive and often judgmental accounts of these cultures. It was not until the turn of the century that anthropologists placed particular importance on gathering data by actual "field" observation and participation, i.e., by living in the culture being studied. In the past, the greatest emphasis was placed on studying indigenous people, but today anthropologists are concerned about people in the complex modern world as well. Urban anthropology and an interest in ethnic groups in colonized nations are examples of this trend. Early anthropologists described different cultures and they analyzed the meaning of cultural behavior in terms of knowledge in the Western world. Later trends, however, have involved discovering the meaning of cultural behavior by eliciting explanations by the people who re members of the culture being studied.

The concept most basic to the field of anthropology is culture because it appears that only humans possess culture. There are nearly as many definitions of culture as there anthropologists, but most agree that a culture is learned and shared by an aggregate group of people (a society), and that it includes patterns of behavior, emotion, and thought. Material artifacts and products of technology are certainly visible evidence of culture, but much of culture cannot be seen as it involves beliefs and values. Anthropologists have recognized throughout world cultures a generally common attitude of esteem that a group holds about itself and a related view that other groups are held in less esteem. This attitude is characterized as ethnocentrism, an attitude which also leads to judging the practices and beliefs in other cultures based on the standards of one's own culture. Without minimizing ethnocentrism, anthropologists would have difficulty acquiring information from people of other cultures. Instead, cultural relativity is stressed. This is the belief that each culture is equally important and that others' beliefs and practices must be understood in their own cultural contexts.

Anthropological attention has been given to social organization, how groups within a culture relate to one another socially. The study of social structure focuses on kinship systems (marriage and family patterns) and other association systems. Social stratification involves the hierarchical arrangements of groups by rank or status within a culture. In the area of economics, anthropologists investigate subsistence patterns, the ways in which people satisfy their material needs, and the distribution of goods or trade. Political organization consists of the arrangement of power and authority and of the resolution of conflict by such means as law and warfare. Anthropologists studying belief systems have sought to distinguish between what people may consider to be sacred or holy and what may be secular or common. Enculturation is the process by which people learn the culture in which they are raised from infancy. This interest has also led anthropologists into cultural studies of personality, psychology, and education.

The phenomena associated with culture change is a particular concern of anthropologists. Cultures are regarded as dynamic, not static. One type of

cultural change is acculturation, which is a process whereby individuals or groups change culturally through prolonged contact with another culture. Cultural conflict may occur as a result of contact between cultures that are dissimilar. Culture shock is experienced often by individuals in their inital contact with a culture very unlike their own.

Research in each of the four major subdivisions in anthropology has been conducted in the state of North Dakota. However, much of this published information may be too technical or specialized for general interest. Archaeologists have been excavating native North Dakota prehistoric and historic sites extensively for about fifty years. This labor has yielded vast but still incomplete knowledge about the early development of native peoples in this area. Physical anthropologists have examined human physical remains, but because this is a sensitive issue with many native peoples, this research, when conducted, is handled with utmost care. Linguists continue to record and analyze the native languages in the state as they are being spoken today. Some native languages have been incorporated into elementary and secondary teaching materials. Research in cultural anthropology has been an on-going endeavor. Few thorough ethnographies exist on groups in North Dakota, but special cultural issues are addressed in many studies. One such study is reported in a recent publication by Mary Jane Schneider ("Economic Aspects of Mandan/Hidatsa Giveaway," Plains Anthropologist 1981, Vol. 26, No. 91, pp. 43-50).

Schneider investigated the contemporary aspects of a traditional cultural practice of "giving away" among the Mandan and Hidatsa tribes who reside at the Fort Berthold Indian Reservation in North Dakota. The practice entails a family of a person who is to be honored collecting, making, or buying items to give away to other members of organizations in their communities. Giveaways are sponsored at many various special occasions such as "the name-giving ceremony with leaving for military or college attendance, retirement and return to the reservation, and funerals" (p. 45). Giveaways are usually part of a pow wow gathering or dance celebration. Items that are given away include star quilts, dance shawls, and war bonnets, many of which are produced by individuals on the reservation in a cottage-craft industry. Schneider found that the giveaway practice functioned to maintained social ties, expecially for people who had left the reservation to obtain work. Because they often must purchase these hand-made items on the reservation when they are involved in sponsoring or supporting a giveaway, they are also contributing to the reservation economy. These off-reservation earnings returned in part to the reservation are especially important since unemployment on the reservation is high. Although the giveaway ceremony itself is more an aspect of the social network, there are also economic ramifications. Schneider's study is a good example of current anthropological interest in cultural dynamics and contemporary culture change.

Anthropological concepts have a particular relevance to social studies education. Anthropologists' emphasis upon culture - its characeristics and problems - was considered by Hilda Taba to be of unique importance to the development of criteria for curriculum making in the 1960's. Nothing is more important in the high school than promoting skills and techniques for good human relations and developing an understanding of social forces, social change, and persistent social problems.

Taba laments the obsolescence of content in social studies curricula. "Only strong pressure obtained approval for some courses in anthropology and sociology in the undergraduate preparation of prospective social science teachers." She suggests including ideas from "the newer disciplines" in the social studies curriculum, and cites anthropology as an example:

> Anthropologists, for example, point out that anthropology, the one science which specializes in the "whole" culture and the "whole"

man, is conspicuously absent both in the content of curriculum and among the concepts with which social phenomena are explained and interpreted. Social studies curricula make meager use of the anthropological concepts which represent generalized knowledge of human nature, values, universals, and culture change (Taba, 1962, p. 47).

The foregoing opinion of a leading curriculum expert is strong support for the inclusion of anthropology in high school social studies programs.

Taba also gives attention to personality development as a part of the learning process. She states that anthropology and social psychology contribute knowledge in this area of human understanding. "Whatever is thought and learned about human nature will have deep repercussions on the instructional program in our schools," she continues.

A series of anthropolgical studies was used to help develop social studies curriculum materials. One example was "The Anthropology Curriculum Study Project," funded by the National Science Foundation. Another example was Man, A Course of Study (MACOS). Audiovisual materials produced for MACOS and similar units have great potential in the development of human understanding through the teaching of cultural anthropology.

For high school anthropology class offerings, an inital emphasis on cultural anthropoloy is recommended. As indicated above, this is the branch of anthropology that studies living people. Emphasis is placed on increasing students' understanding of cultures and peoples different from their own, with a view to encouraging them to appreciate other people for who they are instead of judging other people by the students' own standards.

Here are some inexpensive paperback books which are suitable:
Ina Corinne Brown is an anthropologist who has written a book for the benefit of the non-specialist, Understanding Other Cultures (Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963). The chapter topics are suggestive of her effort to assist students to develop an appreciation for viewpoints other than their own, "Man and Culture," "The Work of the World," "How People Live Together," "How do they Define it"?, "The System of Values," "Religion in Culture," and "People in Transition." The ten chapters could well be used as the basis of twenty class periods of study.

If time permitted after completing Brown's book, a book on the American Indian would assist the student to appreciate his cultural heritage and cultural heritage of others. One of the many good books is Indians of the Americas (New American Library, 1947) by John Collier. Not only does this book introduce the student to Indians of the United States, but it also gives him an insight into Indians south of the border. Various books concerning Indians of the Dakotas are listed in the bibliography.

It would also be well if the student could be given some idea of the problems of peoples of the developing nations. Lisa Redfield Peattie has written a little book The View from the Barrio (Ann Arbor Paperbacks, 1970), in which she gives an intimate inside view of a village in Venezuela. This is an example of life in many "third world" countries. Many teen-agers have no idea of how people outside of "affluent America" live and work--an insight into such topics would increase their appreciation of people of other cultures.

For the Archaeology buff, a good short introduction is America's Past: A New World Archaeology (Scott, Foresman and Company, 1973) by Thomas C. Patterson. This gives an excellent prehistory of the Americas as well as insight into the life of the Indians just before the arrival of white men in the new world.

All four of the books mentioned are available in paperback editions. All are non-technical, making them suitable for the high school student or general reader.

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Geography

Introduction

North Dakota has an area of 70,665 square miles. It has a population of 652,437. The average yearly temperature is 40.2 degrees Fahrenheit, and the statewide normal precipitation mean is 17.71 inches. So much for the geography of North Dakota and the teaching of it. Or is it?

Cultural Geography is a dynamic social science which all too often has been reduced to the rote memorization of place name locations and ancillary data regarding physical features and human habitation. The above thumbnail sketch of North Dakota's geography is much too typical of the way in which regional geography is presented to students at all grade levels. Perhaps the problem is that most social studies teachers have little or no background in the discipline. This seems to be the case according to a recent survey (Munski, forthcoming). How can students be well versed in geographical knowledge if their instructors are not? Geographical illiteracy is dangerous, too.

As will be pointed out in the section on global education, we live in an intradependent world. Geographical study should point out to the student the spatial interrelationships among peoples in our global environment. Geography, as taught in most American pre-collegiate social studies programs, seldom gets beyond identification of the places where different cultural groups live. Still, interaction between different peoples with respect to land use, trade and development strategies must be considered to better comprehend existing global conflicts over resource bases and to prepare alternatives for social-political solutions to those problems. Geography should be the discipline used to provide the spatial framework for studying these interrelationships.

Geography as an Approach

Geography is not so much a body of facts as an approach to looking at any environment. Geography is a dual-natured discipline which involves other disciplines in examining the landscape. In order to understand people's culture, we must look at their physical resources and how those elements influenced the people. However, physical features do not determine a people's culture. Through cultural activities, people develop a physical landscape into a cultural landscape. Hence, the cultural aspect of a people in terms of transmission of technology through language and communication, religious attitudes toward land and society, political structure and land tenure practices, settlement patterns and economic activities also must be examined when considering any area. The difference between cultural geographers and other social scientist, particularly anthropologists and sociologists, is that cultural geographers are more concerned with explaining the spatial arrangement of peoples with respect to physical and cultural parameters. All geographers utilize certain techniques of analysis, traditionally focused upon conventional mapping and field work and increasingly involving computer graphics and remote sensing (air photo/satellite imagery), and stress spatial concepts, e.g., site/situation, distribution and area. The role of geography in a pre-collegiate social studies curriculum should be to provide background to the study of the interactions of peoples in different places over time. Cultural geographers are concerned about how present cultural landscapes have evolved from past cultural landscapes and how might the current cultural landscapes change in the future. Thus, geography should be an integrating theme within social studies.

Geography for North Dakota Schools

Because the emphasis of this book is upon social studies methods for teacher preparation students in North Dakota, the focus of this section of this paper will suggest how geography ought to be an integrating theme within social studies in North Dakota schools. If we examine grades one through seven, geography should be emphasizing basic map reading skills in conjunction with existing courses. A spatial perspective can be introduced gradually, too. Beginning with looking at interrelationships at the neighborhood scale, a primary grades student's geographical viewpoint should expand to include a rudimentary look at how different people live around the world as well as in various parts of the state of North Dakota. Geography provides an excellent set of synthesizing themes for the suggested North Dakota Studies Program in the fourth grade.

When students begin to study American history in grade five and later in grades eight and eleven, geographical knowledge should not be limited to place names. The impact of changing transportation technology upon settlement patterns and resultant economic activities is a spatial process. Displacement of the American Indian, the forced migration of the Blacks as slaves, the conflicts between European ethnic groups, and the efforts to exclude Asiatics and discourage Hispanics are crucial historical occurences which cannot be explained without considering geographical concepts such as time-distance, push-pull factors of migration, diffusion of agricultural technology, impact of industrialization and urbanization, and consequences of population redistribution.

Presumably by grade seven, thirteen year olds should have a substantial grasp on basic map reading skills. In the British system students at that age can read not only road maps and thematic maps but also simple air photos and topographic maps. Thirteen year olds should have a basic place name vocabulary that includes major world locations. The point is that at this age level a student should have the fundamentals for undertaking spatial analysis (cardinal

directions, scales/representational fractions, categorization of data, and comparison of data). Such skills should be applied in the introductory world regional studies in sixth grade (suggested areas of the Western Hemisphere) and seventh grade (suggested areas of the Eastern Hemisphere, particularly portions of the Thirld World bloc). By the age of thirteen, students in North Dakota schools should begin to understand that we are an intradependent global community. A "world village" with neighbors who interact with each other in varying degrees of self-gaining cooperation and mutual misunderstanding may be too negative an analogy for these youth unless the concept of mutual seif-interest is introduced, too.

Intradependency as seen through geographical interconnections becomes particularly apparent if students in grade eight (a traditional course offering of North Dakota Studies and United States History) and grade nine (the traditional grade level for high school-level world regional geography) are taught about North Dakota's role in world food and energy trade. The importance of political geography using local examples of impacts in terms of grain and oil embargoes should become readily apparent to North Dakotans, inhabitants of a state which depends heavily upon production and export of foodstuffs and energy resources for revenues. Here the underlying physical parameters of climatic and terrain restraints upon food productions and the given distribution of mineral resources cannot be denied. However, geographers in social studies programs stress the cultural parameters that compound the situation. In the case of food we see the role of traditional diets and the importance of transportation for delivering food between places. We also recognize the interconnections of food and energy. Different agricultural systems demand various levels of energy inputs. North Dakota's commercial agriculture is a good example of a developed economics reliance upon petrochemicals for fertilizers and gasoline for transportation.

After the eighth grade, students should be using their geographical knowledge in applications-oriented situations. This is not to imply that extended studies of different parts of North Dakota, the United States, North America, the Western Hemisphere and the world are to be devoid of introducing "new" place names and ancillary data to the students. Such map work and data provide the basis for manipulation of figures for analyzing the flow of goods, peoples and ideas between places. However, it is the analysis of interaction and subsequent intradependency which should be the thrust of the input of geography to ninth grade world regional geography or American Studies in grades eleven and twelve in North Dakota schools.

Tools of Geographers

A question arises at this point: What tools should be used to teach geography in North Dakota schools? One answer is to use devices similar to those used by cultural geographers working in private industry and governmental agencies. A vast array of tools is availabe. Some items are as traditional as a thematic wall map and as new as a LANDSAT image acquired through computer processing of satellite photography. Not all tools are as complex, or as expensive, as a microprocessor computer. A ruler with both English and metric markings and a set of colored pencils are simple and fundamental tools. However, some equipment is extremely specialized and used only for specific tasks, e.g. a plotter attached to a computer system for production of SYMAP and SYMVE maps. Still, the point is to select the most appropriate set of tools for a given geographic problem whether it is a case of applied geography or a classroom exercise.

An example of introducing students to some of the equipment used by geographers engaged in regional planning in North Dakota is presented to demonstrate that a teacher can provide "realistic" experiences in geographical

problem-solving. This particular example focuses upon studying the impact of lignite development upon urban growth in Mercer County, North Dakota. Such a study could be used in various grade levels depending upon the degree of desired complexity of classroom instruction; for purposes here the thrust will be upon doing the project in eighth grade North Dakota studies.

In order to begin to study the issue, students must know where Mercer County is and what it is like with respect to coal production. This first step can be made using a primary tool: maps. Start with a state road map so that students can begin to understand the situation (relative location) of Mercer County with respect to their own county. Then represent thematic maps that show areas of lignite development and areas of population growth. Ask questions as to what is the apparent relationship between the population increase of communities such as Hazen, Beulah, and Zap. To answer these sorts of questions, students would have to collect data. A typical tool to use is census materials and ancillary statistics, collected through archival research. Students would use the school library and be introduced to governmental materials: a teacher must work with the librarian to develop this component successfully.

Students could then focus upon a specific community. Topographic maps, zoning maps, planning reports and related items would be available from appropriate governmental agencies. A teacher who has the willingness to use historical and current air photos with students in this project can introduce a whole new dimension: remote sensing tools. An even more adventuresome teacher might find funds to purchase a LANDSAT image of a particular part of Mercer County so to begin to have students compare land use classifications.

Finally, should funds be available, a field trip might be conducted to the study area. Fieldwork requires a set of tools in itself and there are several good texts outlining field work procedures for students, e.g. Dunlop. Such a field trip to western North Dakota could involve having students meet with representatives of mining companies, governmental planners and other students so to learn firsthand what conditions are like in a "boom" area of the state. Studying this and other socio-economic and environmental issues using geographic tools makes students more aware of the interrelationships between different facets of regional development processes whether it is within or outside North Dakota.

Concepts

It must never be forgotten that the rationale for introducing new techniques of data gathering and data manipulation whether it be in history, political science, sociology, or other social studies taught in the state of North Dakota's schools is to better explain concepts or investigate theories of the particular discipline. Geography has always emphasized looking at the location of phenomena. Site (absolute location) and situation (relative location) are the basics of locational studies. Distribution of phenomena is a spatial condition explained in terms of the density, dispersal (concentration), pattern (geometric arrangement) and coincidence (relationship of phenomena under study to other variables). Through examination of the distribution of phenomena, it is possible to categorize areas into regions. Regions may be uniform (an area with one or more characteristic variable) or nodal (a trade area for a particular jurisdiction) or academic (a theoretical area). The concepts of location, distribution and region are core concepts of geography. These concepts are used by both physical-oriented and cultural-oriented geographers.

Without neglecting the importance of the physical resource base for studying any cultural landscape, it should be stressed that the emphasis of geography in the social studies is in cultural concepts. As Bacon points out,

the core concepts of human geography include culture, diffusion, land use, population, migration, agriculture, industry and urbanization (Bacon, 1979). There are also domain and sphere concepts according to Bacon (1979). Use of particular core, domain and sphere concepts will depend upon the focus and grade level of the specific course.

Continuing with the example of the impact of lignite development upon urban growth in Mercer County, North Dakota, one could select appropriate domain and sphere concepts to complement the introduction of core concepts. Some of these supplementary concepts are fairly straight forward, e.g. growth rate, but others can become complex, e.g. multiplier effect. Therefore, one must be careful when using domain concepts such as conversation, resource and transportation system or sphere concepts such as census tract, cost-benefit, economic base, feedback and projection of population when working with eighth graders. Naturally, the level of student ability will be critical when choosing which concepts to introduce at a given time regarding a geographical issue. It should be pointed out, too, that many geographic concepts have developed as a result of geographers borrowing ideas or terms from other disciplines and putting them into a special context.

Conclusion

Geography has always been a multidisciplinary-oriented subject. It has been considered the bridge between the social sciences and the physical sciences because of its spatial approach. Yet, at a time when persons trained in geographical skills and programs has been most needed, we find we are a nation of geographic illiterates. Foreigners know more about our culture and physical resources than we do. We know too little about our world neighbors and are finding what are the consequences of being disinterested in geography: political entanglements that are costly, economic alliances that have questionable gains and social disruption from cultures in conflicts. Within the United States and within North Dakota we are finding that we are intradependent. Our spatial interactions are intradependent at a variety of scales, too, from farm and town neighborhoods to global alliances.

It appears that the thrust of academic geography is returning to regional geography, albeit regional geography emphasizing new techniques of data acquisition and data interpretation. Perhaps there is hope yet for us to reverse the dangerous condition of functional geographic illiteracy prevalent in the United States. North Dakota schools and its institutions of higher education working together can provide a model whereby that trend is reversed. Now go back to the first paragraph of this article and think about those geographical facts--think seriously about them. Will you take this challenge to be more of a modern day geographer when you enter that classroom as a teacher? Perhaps the future of North Dakota depends upon it more than you believe now in this intradependent world--and it probably will!

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Economics

Economics is the study of the variables associated with, and the conflicts created by, man's attempt to satisfy his almost unlimited wants from the earth's very limited resources. The most basic of these variables studied by the econmist involves the concepts of scarity, specialization, interdependence, market, and public policy.

Man quickly learned that specialization increases productive efficiency to ease the coflict. There is also geographic specialization based on exploration and transportation; there is occupational specialization based on expanding knowledge and education; and there is technological specialization based on invention and innovation.

Specialization necessitates market, and the pattern of specialization is determined in the market. Interaction of supply and demand in the market determines what shall be produced, how much, how and for whom. Market also is the allocating mechanism. It is here that price is determined, not only for finished goods but also for the factors of production. Employment of the pro-

resources, land, labor, and capital, generates income for spending and savings. Savings make possible investment in tools of production, and it is the combination of spending and savings in a free market economy that determines the level of income and employment.

The market is modified by public policy derived from interaction of people's value preferences. A free market economy uses public policy to assure social objectives. These objectives or goals are commonly stated as:

Growth - the desire for an increasing standard of living for an increasing population.

Stability - the desire for a level of employment without inflation.

Security - the desire for continuity of income in the face of physical and economic hazards.

Freedom - the desire of producers to select their occupations and of consumers to dispose of their incomes knowledgeably.

Justice - the desire to minimize inequalities of opportunities and income.

Every kind of economic system must deal with the same basic economic problem of scarcity. Economic systems differ only in how much is allocated by market and how much by government. The kind of economic system a society develops will depend on the values that the society holds.

Students like economics because it can provide real-life experiences in dealing with familiar situations. In spite of diverse socio-economic backgrounds, your pupils are all citizen-consumers and have had some experience in dealing with needs and wants. Through appropriate learning experiences they can form generalizations related to their own values and goals, develop the ability to earn and manage money, become more intelligent consumers, and understand the principles related to saving and investing.

As a teacher you may be a bit fearful of economics and may share a thought - no stranger to most - that you have much to learn about economics yourself.

Fortunately a marvelous help is available. For you personal enlightenment - for reassuring depth of understanding - you have only to turn to the basic economic concepts and generalization outlined in the State Social Studies Guide. Use this handy guide for easy referral:

Elementary level K-5 (green section) pages 27-28

Intermediate level 6-8 (yellow section) pages 45-46

Secondary level 9-12 (pink section) page 67

At each level, economic concepts can be related to the student's real world. Basic economic concepts are repeated in levels of progression into a growing complexity of relationships which provide students with an increasing comprehension of an ever-changing and more complex society - a society in which they will not only be consumers but producers and taxpayers as well.

A little of the teacher's time spent in systematic study of the basic concepts and generalizations as outlined in the State Social Studies Guide will pay rich dividends. Constant reference to, and re-enforcement of the list of basic economic ideas, and you will know the satisfaction of seeing your students become alert to the real nature and functioning of our economy. You will know that your efforts have provided a basis for continuing growth in learning through further reading and exposure to a variety of media communication.

Indirect teaching devices are sometimes more productive than direct teaching methods. A teacher who has had great success in teaching the basic economic concepts reports, "I carefully avoid forcing the class to study economics so deeply and in such a concentrated manner that it would lead to a dulling of interest."

The general approach to teaching economics on the elementary level may well be to integrate economics into the existing curriculum rather than add it on as another subject. The alert teacher will recognize, relate, and expand the economics that is already part of every subject in the curriculum. When-

ever the regular curriculum presents a situation to which an economic concept seems relevant it can be included with the regular subject matter.

Use your bulletin board as a springboard to economics. Let the students start a bulletin board project to develop an economics vocabulary. This provides an interesting correlation with language arts as another part of your curriculum. Each child may keep his own vocabulary booklet. As new economic terms arise (trade, barter, wants, needs, consumer, market, etc.) place them on the bulletin board. Expand dictionary skills by looking up meanings and then using the words in meaningful sentences. Their own explanation can go into their personal vocabulary booklets. In the process they are practicing their spelling, syllabication, accents and other word skills, and are at the same time building economic understandings.

Bulletin board terms may become the leads for arithmetic lessons, history lessons in government, and geography lessons. It may be an arithmetic lesson on computing profits or on household budgeting - money paid out (costs) and money brought in (income). Or it may be a history lesson, perhaps in North Dakota studies your class is learning about explorers and fur traders in North Dakota. Words such as "trade" and "barter" come into focus. Or maybe the children are studying about Columbus. What were the reasons for the voyages? Again the term "trade," "new products," "new markets," increase in "income," "risk capital" (costs of the voyage), even a more sophisticated understanding, the law of "comparative advantage." A study of the geography of North Dakota offers the innovative teacher more opportunity to plant seeds of economic understanding in youthful minds - "productive resources," "land uses," "natural resources." North Dakota government - more economics - "taxes," "collective" needs and wants, "state-owned enterprise" (mill and elevator).

Even the school lunchroom has its lesson for observing. The economic concept of "specialization" and its companion, "comparative advantage" may be re-enforced by a study of the foods on the table. The students, for example, may be encouraged to identify the source of each item, bread from North Dakota wheat, potatoes from Idaho or from our own Red River Valley, oranges from Florida, cheese from Wisconsin, milk from Minnesota, etc.

With their growing understanding of economic concepts the students will be brought to the realization that economizing is a system of determining priorities - choosing wisely to achieve given ends. Budgeting time in studying is an application of economics. Students learn to weigh the satisfaction obtained from alternative uses of a unit of time (the law of opportunity costs).

Economics is concerned with the problem of scarcity. No one has all the things he wants. People must make choices. Choices are made when the child must decide between doing his homework and going to a movie. Choices are made whenever money is spent or saved and always the "opportunity cost" must be weighed.

Nearly all aspects of human life are affected by economics, and an understanding of basic economic concepts will help both the individual in our society - one individual can make his own neighborhood a better place to live.

Again, the basic economic concepts outlined in our State Social Studies Guide are there for you to use, neatly presented on three levels of complexity. These economic concepts can be used to enrich the daily curriculum of all basic learning, thereby providing greater depth of understanding in the various subjects - and all within the existing curriculum.

Questions for Discussion

1. What effect have the following had on your community, your family, or you personally:

high interest rates and home buying
automobile imports
rising gasoline prices
tax cutting and budget cutting proposals
inflation

2. What do think is the number one economic problem of the nation today?

Suggested Activities

Suggest a role-playing situation in which students become parents with a monthly net income of $750. After deductions of $420 for rent, insurance, utilities, auto expenses, and finance charges, the students are to decide how to allocate the remaining $330 for food clothing, entertainment, savings, newspapers, and the like. (Assume a family of four.) The concept of unlimited wants and limited resources is made quite clear.

Psychology

Braod Definition

Psychology is the study of human behavior and the human characteristics that influence interaction between individuals. Psychology attempts to discover why human beings and living things act and think the way they do. The use of the scientific method in gathering information on behavioral and mental processes in living things is basic to the study of psychology.

Psychology can be divided into the fields of Experimental Psychology and Clinical Psychology. Experimental Psychology is primarily the study of animal behavior, under controlled conditions. The experimental psychologist contends that animal studies such as these develop generalizations which may be applied to human beings. Clinical psychologists, on the other hand, work with individuals who have emotional, mental, or personality problems.

A more advanced field of study in psychology is carried out by the psychiatrists. Psychiartists are medical doctors who complete a three year residency in the area of psychiatry. They also work with individuals who are suffering from mental distress. Due to their medical background they can prescribe drugs which will be helpful to patients in their care.

A new field of psychology, biopsychology is the study of the interaction between the mind and the body. The biopsychologist would be an individual who received training in biology and psychology. This individual has the background to experiment in both biological and psychological areas.

North Dakota Studies

A variety of psychological investigations have been conducted in North Dakota over the past years. Area studies have included habits of animals, human aversion to pain, biorhythm as a predictor, and family living. The biorhythm study attempted to determine whether a subject's biorhythm was a predictor of outcome on the day of either surgery, death, or athletic performance. None of the data in this study found a relationship between biorhythm and these events in life. While little knowledge was added to psychology from this study, it was an interesting topic and raised questions for future research.

A psychological study of animals in North Dakota involved the manipulation

of wheat and oat performance in black-tailed prairie dogs, using methiocarb as a taste aversion agent. The purpose was to determine if this additive would reduce rodent consumption of North Dakota grain crops. The results found that prairie dogs successfully learned taste aversion to grain in the test. This was a significant finding for farmers in North Dakota and may have value for international agricultural concerns.

In these studies it was essential that the research directors followed recognized research procedures acceptable in the field of psychology. While the results of the studies were not always conclusive, they raised questions of concern to society.

Tools

Tools and methods of research in the field of psychology are designed with the idea of gathering data that will answer questions about how humans and other animals behave. A very straight forward approach to gathering data about humans is to ask them questions or use a questionnaire. Problems arise when researchers "load" their experimental approaches in favor the the answer they desire. Other problems arise in the process of obtaining a random sample of the population from which data is being gathered. Psychologists use these samples of data to make conclusions about beliefs and habits of larger populations. Careful planning is needed to successfully carry out these studies, whatever method of information gathering is used.

Observation is another method of gathering data for psychological study. The researcher chooses a procedure of observing and recording data that will help answer questions previously identified. Careful observation is not easy; gathering the facts and describing them accurately can be a real challenge. Random observation of humans in a bus depot, or a busy city intersection, can serve as a rewarding experience in studying human habits. Children may be observed at play grounds or school environments to gather data about their reactions in social situations, or their behavior in learning environments.

Experimentation is also a valuable tool to the psychologist. In this procedure the researcher sets up environments which are highly controlled. People or animals in the experiment are referred to as subjects. The researcher forms a hypothesis or statement that will be tested in the experiment. The term "variable" is used to refer to any factor that is capable of change. Psychologists distinguish between two kinds of variables; those that are controlled are the "independent variables" and those that are free to change are "dependent variables." In scientific experimentations, the investigator manipulates the independent variable to see if or how the dependent variable is affected.

To help remove doubt about research procedure, the psychologist divides his subjects into groups; a "control group" and an "experimental group." The control group would be a normal population in usual surroundings, while the experimental group would be the subjects receiving the independent variable. Results from these experiments are used to make conclusions about how and why humans and animals behave as they do.

Statistics are highly important to psychologists, and are used to give data in some numerical form for interpretation and review by other interested individuals.

MAJOR CONCEPTS

Learning and Maturation

The first major area of study in psychology is learning and maturation.

This area requires a review of how humans learn the characteristics of maturation. Generally, humans learn how to solve problems from past experiences, the old trial and error method. Pavlov believed living beings learned by way of a stimulus-response relationship. He believed humans learned to react to certain significant stimuli. Other theories on learning put forth by Malsow centered around the needs of individuals. Maslow suggested the need for food, love, and belonging motivated humans to learn.

Maturation is the process by which individuals grow and develop characteristics appropriate to recognized age groups. Maturation is an expected and treasured aspect of life of human beings. Recognized authorities in the growth and development field have included Elkind, Piaget, and Erikson.

Social Needs

Social needs are those activities individuals fulfill in small or large groups. Social awareness techniques are passed from generation to generation as strategic necessary skills. American culture rewards competition, and being a winner usually is a method of gaining respect in social groups. In other social groups, such as the Chinese or American Indians, competition is discouraged. Humans generally want to be approved socially. They want to achieve socially and be accepted socially and will do what is necessary to gain that status. A factor that facilitates formation of social groups is a climate that clearly communicates the boundaries of social approval.

A group exists when we find two or more persons who communicate with one another. A group involves members who willingly acknowledge they belong to the same organization. They share a variety of wants, goals, or mutual activities. Initially, individuals develop the recognized skills of group awareness, mutual achievement, and trust in their own family group. The family is the training ground for later group participation.

Group studies have been completed on street gangs, mobs, and crowds. Recent group studies have covered race prejudice, life in integrated housing projects, and effects of war and terrorism.

Personality

The study of personality deals with what is unique about each individual. Personality study also involves what is consistent in our behavoir and how we retain individual characteristics throughout life. These characteristics delineate personality and help identify each person's qualities in our multicultural society. When we talk about personality, we are talking about those aspects of each of us that are enduring, constant, stable, lasting parts of us. If you are shy today, more than likely you will be shy tomorrow. The special talented or gifted individual has contributed greatly to the quality of life. Freud tried to explain the quality of life. Freud developed his personality theory centered around the id, ego, and superego. In this theory, Freud tried to explain the complexities of the human conscious and unconscious in the behavior of man. Jung's ideas about personality grew out of Freud's work. Later personality work has been completed by Erik Erikson and Karen Horney.

Stability

People continue to need to grow and to strive for perfection and expression in organizing their lives. Maslow suggested there is an inner nature that carries on a maintenance role in every person. This inner core is never bad or

evil. In living, a person seeks to develop and establish a certain stability. Maslow believed this is accomplished through fulfillment of needs on a consistent basis. Humans strive to maintain this stabiltiy.

Values

The maturing person asks, "Who am I?" and "What do I believe?" The individual, through family and peer interaction, develops a conscience. This involves the internalization of values accepted by society. As our conscience develops most of use feel a sense of obligation to behave in accordance with the norms and morals of our society. At the same time we acquire the ability to engage in critical analysis of these values and expectations and, where necessary, to reject them in favor of what our conscience tells us is right or wrong.

Questions for Discussion

1. Recently hospital staffs have been encountering many examples of child abuse-beating and mental harm caused to infants and children by their own parents. If you believe that child abusing was a trait that some people had, what would you do to correct it? If you believed that child abuse was the result of bad situations, what would you do to correct it? Which view of the cause of child abuse is most advantageous to the children involved?
2. Since things like love and friendship are invisible, how do you know they exist?
3. Place each of the items listed below in one of two categories: (1) it reflects the longitudinal method of assessing development, or (2) it reflects the cross-sectional method.
   a. your scrapbook
   b. your most recent report card
   c. your autobiography
   d. your babybook
   e. your medical history
   f. your score on a physical fitness test held last fall
4. Your friend gives you a special gift on your birthday. Does the meaning of the gift become conditioned to your friend so that the next time you see her you think of the gift she gave you?
5. How could you shape a child to a love of books and school?
6. Positive reinforcers are whatever individuals are willing to work for. What are some things that you would work for? What things would you work hardest for? What things would you work longest for?
7. If you felt growth-oriented and self-actualizing, would everyone know how you felt or would only you know?
8. Write down all the roles you play. Which one is the real you? How did you get the roles you have? How might you get a new one?
9. Now that you know that babies begin learning as soon as they are born, what would you recommend that parents do for their new babies during the first six months?
10. What kinds of school policy change would you accept calmly without student involvement, and which ones would you be angry about if students were not involved in the decisons?

Political Science

Definition and Function

Political Science, one of the most comprehensive disciplines within the social and behavioral sciences, focuses on the structure and function of political institutions and the individual and collective political behavior of individuals. The extended nature of the discipline is reflected in the variety of interests pursued by political scientists. The presidential election of 1980, village life in India, medieval political philosophy, and municipal refuse disposal are a few examples of legitimate subjects of inquiry which illustrate not only the wide parameters of the discipline, but also its rich diversity. The broad range of subject matter has made it difficult to definitively classify fields within the discipline. It is logical and convenient (and safe), however, to state that there are at least three general fields with over twenty-five specializations, ranging from local to international and world government.

In the most fundamental and meaningful sense, political science is the study of politics. Simply defined, politics is "power-seeking behavior" related to the conflict among those who are trying to shape and manipulate the environment to satisfy their needs and desires. The important concept in politics is power, with power viewed as a relationship between people or a process of gaining and wielding influence rather than as a commodity or attribute to be possessed. According to Harold Lasswell, a significant contributor to modern political science, politics is an inquiry into "Who gets what, when, how," and the center of that inquiry is conflict and the struggle for power.

Politics may be viewed as inevitable and all-pervasive in human affairs because resources (material, human, psychic) are generally insufficient to satisfy all needs and desires all the time everywhere. Indeed, some political scientists have argued that human destruction is mandated by the conflict that results from infinite (or insatiable) human needs and desires set in a world of finite resources.

Politics surrounds and impinges upon practically all human activities and circumstances. In a very real way, we are all obliged to engage in politics on a formal and/or informal level in a more or less intense way to realize goals.

Political science, therefore, should be seen not only as a scholarly discipline but as a useful and perhaps essential way of looking at the environment in which we live. One of the primary functions of political science has always been to provide comprehension and understanding of that environment, one on which we all rely and for which we all share increased concern.

Methodologies

The ubiquitous presence of politics in human affairs prompted Aristotle to call Man a "political animal" and political science the "Master Science." Aristotle, however, did not mean that the study of politics and political institutions is a science in the sense of the natural and technical sciences such as chemistry, physics, and biology. These traditional sciences rely on controlled experiments conducted in a laboratory setting, one in which the variables can be precisely manipulated in innumerable experiments. This is something that political scientists (and social scientists, generally) find difficult to re-

plicate. It is not possible, for example, to repeat the presidential election of 1980 ten times, adding and subtracting what might be causal components and finally determining the "truth" of the election's outcome. It is simply not possible to impose precise laboratory conditions of political phenomena in real life. The singularity and uniqueness of each phenomenon and the manifold variables preclude that kind of political "science." That political science will express its findings in terms of universal law or "generalizations of theories with explanatory and predictive values" is an ideal not yet realized.

Political science, however, can be said to be a science to the extent that it incorporates systematic approaches or methodologies to the gathering and organizing of specialized knowledge.

Political science is not clearly differentiated from other social sciences, particularly in the area of methodology. Some of the methods used by political scientists, in fact, originated in the fields of history, economics, sociology, psychology, philosophy, mathematics, and engineering.

Examples of methodologies or forms of inquiry utilized by political scientists include participant observation, case studies, surveys and polls, systems analysis, and psychoanalytical theory as methodology. Many of the more contemporary approaches to political inquiry have at their center a strong quantitative component, e.g., content and interaction analysis, sociometry, and multivariate table analysis.

The important thing to remember is that there is no one "correct" methodology. Any methodology is either appropriate or innappropriate to the research being conducted, with that determination made by the person doing the work.

Concepts

Concepts are general, verbal definitions which are essential to effective communication. A way of viewing and understanding political science content is through basic concepts. For purposes here, a concept is a "kind of verbal handle used to grasp and communicate the essential features" of political behavior and institutions.

The list of concepts in political science is endless and there is much debate about which are the most important to and understanding of the discipline. The brief discussion below regarding the institution of the state as a political concept is meant to be representative (and certainly not all-inclusive) of how concepts are used in political science.

Humankind creates institutions (products of habit and convention) designed to meet specific perceived needs. The state, as one such institution, has as its basic ingredients people, territory, government, and sovereignty. Government is the machinery of the state to which the citizens, to a greater or lesser degree, render obedience. Concepts central to the functioning of the state are leadership, decision-making and policy. The legitimacy of the power and influence wielded by the government and the people (either individually or collectively) is often controversial since questions of freedom, liberty, majority rule and minority rights are involved. The sovereignty of a state, that is, its ability to make decisions free of relatively free from external control, is never absolute because it is contrained by national and international norms, which may or may not be formalized in systems of law and justice. The primary purpose for which the state was created, "the promotion of the temporal good," may or may not be incorporated in a written or unwritten constitution, which contains organic law related to the structure, functions, limitations of power of the government and the ideology, or basic principles, on which the state is founded. While the state is but one of many political units studied

in political science today, it is probably the most important because the world is strongly organized into nation-state systems. Perhaps that explains why some political scientists define political science as "the science of the state."

North Dakota Studies

North Dakota is a state moving through a period of dynamic transition toward an uncertain future. Much political controversy has been caused by the significant changes which have occurred since World War II. North Dakota has become an exciting storehouse of political issues for the student of political science.

Population decline in rural and small town areas, with a concomitant increase in city populations, has precipitated reapportionment problems. The state legislature, reflecting a traditional agrarian dominance, has been unable to reapportion its seats in the conformity with the "equal protection of the laws" rules established by the Supreme Court in the 1960's. The result has been a forced reapportionment by the court, a procedure protested by those who decry the judiciary entering the "political thicket." Our understanding of the principal of federalism has been tempered and conditioned by the reapportionment struggle.

Dislocations of the state population have also forced the consolidation of some school districts and the elimination of others. The effort to keep and maintain schools in the face of declining enrollments and increasing educational costs makes for heated, ofttimes rancorous political debate on the local as well as the state level of politics.

The school problem, along with increased demands for new and better services from governments by citizens, has energized local and state politics to a degree quite different from the pre-World War II period.

Greater economic diversity, made possible by advanced technology, more sophisticated agricultural methods, and natural resource development, has also stimulated the political climate. The extraction of fossil fuels has especially caused debate. The present coal tax severance law was arrived at only after protracted deliberation by the legislature. The six percent oil extraction tax, adopted as policy in the 1980 election as an initiated measure, has been challenged in the courts as unconstitutional and its future remains uncertain. The use on the initiative, most notably by former Bismarck businessman Robert McCarney in the past and more recently by the NDEA in the oil extraction initiated measure, raises serious questions about the role of interest groups and political parties in the policy-making process and the adequacy of representative government. The efficacy of individual citizens in the political process, generally, is also germane to an examination of the decision-making process in state and local government.

The demand for foodstuffs and energy set in world made smaller by advanced transportation and communications technology has broken the state's geographic isolation. The relationship between the state and outside economic interests has always been, fundamentally, a political issue. The fact that North Dakota has become one of the leading export states ($1.4 billion) is as significant politically as it is economically. The licensing and regulation of corporations, environmental protection and reclamation, and planning for the future of the state are vexatious issues to be resolved in the political arena.

For Discussion

A. "In free, or relatively free societies, it is absolutely essential that

individuals be skilled practitioners of politics if they are to succeed in life."

B. "Political science, like other social sciences, is a true science in that universal and immutable laws are the consequences of research and experimentation."

C. "Politics is the study of who does what to whom."

D. "The individual does not count for much in American politics because of the complexity of issues and the relationship of money and organization to the resolution of those issues."

E. "The authority (police power) of the state is always antagonistic toward and errosive of individual rights and liberties."

F. "Abortion is moral, not a political issue."
"Nonsense. All moral questions become political issues eventually, and remain so."

G. "If political science has proved anything, it is that the masses are incapable of governing themselves. Only certain elites and interest groups have the will, intellect, and organizational skills necessary to effective governance.

H. "The nation-state system has failed humankind miserably, and we would do well to flush it into the dustbin of history."

I. "North Dakota is seriously politically divided by east-west and rural-urban antagonisms. This explains, in part, why public policy in the state has been so easily dominated by outside interests."

J. "The institutions of the law always reflect the desires of the strong. This is the Iron Law of politics."

History

Ask a first term college freshman, "What is history?" and the answer will probably be, "History is everything that has happened in the past." Ask the same freshman why he/she is taking a course in history, and the response will be, "Because my advisor said it is required." Ask, "What do you expect to acquire from the course?" and the response is "A passing grade," not some new truth or understanding. Ask, "What good is history?" and the reply will probably correspond to Henry Ford's view that "History is Bunk." History, the written record of mankind, doesn't have much meaning for many students, but every culture, every civilization, every people, is the product of its accumulated experience. History is the memory of these accumulated experiences; it is the collection of human endeavors. It provides a vicarious experience whereby we may all learn of the trials, challenges, success, and failures of our predecessors. Although history does not repeat itself, it does provide a model for examining individual and collective problems, movements, trends, and evolution. It is dynamic and offers a guide to the contemporary world.

The material used by the historian in constructing a chapter in the human existance consists of two types: hard and soft. Hard includes such things as buildings, farm implements, clothing, weapons, etc. Soft consists of written sources of all types: clay tablets from Mesopotamia, Roman law codes, documents produced by the government of the United States, diaries and memoirs of individuals, newspaper editorials, etc. All are valuable bits in the reconstructing of the memory of mankind. With the exception of the exact moment of preception all knowledge mankind possesses is past knowledge, hence in a sense all knowledge is historical and is thus subject to historical study.

Students should acquire a fundamental knowledge of the different interpretations of history. The first in time to make its appearance was the

Cyclical view. It dominated thinking from the start of historical thought to approximately the onset of the Christian era. Whether consciously or not, those who make the statement that "History repeats itself" are espousing this view. The Cyclical interpretation holds that all human events occur in cycles: periodically, what has happened will happen again. By itself this view of history is rather meaningless, and it provides no real knowledge of the evolution of societies. It is important today primarily because it is found in combination with other theories of history.

The Cyclical view began to change with the rise of Christianity--the birth of Christ was viewed as a one time occurance: it was not subject to cyclical reoccurrence. This view was replaced by the Providential view. According to its exponents, man had little control over what happened to him. Instead he was subject to intervening divine forces. For people such as Augustine of Hippo, life on earth was merely an interlude in the anticipation of the hereafter. In America this Providential view, although having declined somewhat in importance, was held in a modified form by the Puritans who founded Massachusetts Bay Colony. Their belief in the doctrine of predestination falls into this classification even though they modified it by adding the view that material wealth was a sign of divine favor.

Gradually men turned away from authority, ie., Christian dogma, and the old views of nature were superceded. This came about as a result of the rise of number of new forces: scientific inquiry, the Reformation, the rise of a materialistically oriented middle class, and the great discoveries of some scientists such as Issac Newton. The belief that individuals might have some control over their environment and their destiny began to emerge. Natural laws began to replace divine forces in controling the dynamics of the universe and men began to think in terms of improving their conditions. Hence material prosperity as well as eternal salvation became the goals of people.

During the eighteenth century a new theory emerged which received a good deal of attention. This is known as the Progessive view. It held that the human race was constantly improving, progressing, becoming more and more civilized. This view placed complete faith in the ability of mankind, and since each generation built upon the accomplishments of its predecessor, each new generation must be better. This attitude is common at the present time. Americans are generally an optimistic people inspite of concerns of the moment and inspite of frequent prediction of doom by some elements in the society. In the United States the Progressive theory is prevasive: virtually every politician talks of improvement and progress.

The Cyclical, the Providential, and the Progressive views are the three basic schools of historical interpretation. Although other views exist, none have had as large an impact as these three. Furthermore, most of the other schools of thought are adaptions or combinations of these. For example, one variant of the progressive school is the idea that progess is achieved by the submersion of the individual in the collective society.

Every society assumes the importance of history for the obvious reasons that it is necessary for an understanding of the present and for the perpetuation of cultural and national identity and unity. History, however, must be learned, and the question is how to go about learning it. Learning to a large extent is dependent upon interest, and regretably too often the student's experience with history consists of the numbing dullness of memorizing meaningless facts.

Perhaps for most people the study of history begins and ends with a required formal course which frequently appears to be boring, laborious, and a waste of time. Normally the class is based on lectures, discussion, and required reading which is sometimes supplemented by written assignments of one kind or another and usually broken up with a helping of audio-visual material, quizzes, and tests.

Frequently the lecture is the core of the course. Ideally it is used to identify the broad patterns of the material, and to provide an explanation of cause, effect, and significance. Commonly students view lectures as nothing but a duplication of the material found in the reading assignments and consequently a waste of time. Rather than duplication, lectures should supplement the reading material by providing a more interpretive approach to the factual material found in the text. Also, lectures provide an opportunity to give a dramatization of the subject that reading cannot accomplish.

Discussion sessions, like lectures, frequently do not live up to their potential. The teacher standing in the front of the room firing factual questions at the class while the students are turning pages in their textbook to discover the answers does not achieve the goals of discussion. Discussion is a supervised opportunity to observe, think, and talk about history and this is one of the most effective ways for the student to become interested in the subject, to gain new information, digest concepts, and to discover new insights. The discussion session should be a real conversation with all of those present and not just a dialogue between one student and the teacher.

The purpose of a history course is understanding, not the acquisition of a factual mental encyclopedia. Naturally factual information is necessary, it is the foundation for generalizations and concepts, but, the way to learn facts is through a broader pattern which emphasizes generalizations, concepts and significance. Real learning is not memorization; it is understanding.

For the student who engages in the writing of history, one of the most difficult and most important aspects is the choice of topics. This choice must first represent something a student is interested in, and secondly the topic must be something the student is capable of dealing with effectively.

After choosing an appropriate topic, whether it be the story of the rise and fall of the Roman Empire or a look at the affects of the Great Depression on Divide County, North Dakota, the historian proceeds to collect and analyze all existing information. In examining both primary sources--accounts written by a participant or an eyewitness of an event, and secondary sources--written accounts based on primary sources, the historian must be careful to determine the nature of the material used. Is, for example, the source truely a creditable source--can you believe the author, is he/she prejudice, what circumstances led to the writing of the document, etc. If you are reading an account of the Farm Holiday Association strike in Minot, North Dakota, written by one of the Association leaders, the description and interpretation of events may be at variance with an account written by one was opposed to the Association. Secondly, the historian must consider whether the source is truly a valid source: is the material well grounded in evidence, is it a mere fabrication of a fertile mind, was the document "planted" for some reason. Finally, the historian must judge on the authenticity of the source: was it really written by the author--did the diplomat, the movie star, the sports hero actually write his/her autobiography?

History deals with change, evolution, development. Everything we have today came into being in the past--our political, economic, social, and intellectual systems are all products of evolution from an earlier (sometimes distant) experience. One of the most difficult problems teachers of history must deal with is to assess and convey the cause and effect relation in the historical evolution of ideas, values, attitudes, and institutions. It is not sufficient to declare that many of the early pioneer farmers who settled North Dakota built sod houses because lumber was scarce. By itself this is rather meaningless. Rather, historians must discover and document fundamental causes such as the physical environment and demonstrate how these fundamental causes helped condition the values, outlook, attitudes, and institutions of the people in the state. For example, what effect has the physical environment had on the radicalization of North Dakota farmers, on adaption and adjustment

of eastern institutions, on the fiscal policy of the state, on the values of individualism and/or cooperation, etc. Causes are extremely difficult to assess and care must be taken to avoid simplification, ie., the dust bowl years in North Dakota were caused by poor farming techniques. Human beings are very complex; history is the study of their activities; hence, causes are extremely complex.

By using the term "cause" there must of necessity be an effect. Thus, having found the cause, historians turn to effects. Identifying the effects of a given cause is also a very involved complex task. A cause may have many major effects. Furthermore, since the story of humankind is a story of evolving change built layer upon layer, effects become causes in a continuum.

Americans from the early colonial days onward have tended to associate change with progress and progress with the adjective "good." Throughout the story of the United States the changing political, social, and economic system have been put forth as models for the world to emulate. But change, regardless of how positive is may be, produces some cruel, undesirable, and/or disruptive occurances on individuals and entire groups. When, for example, the Industrial Revolution came to England mass dislocation of people resulted, the new labor force was subjected to vastly different working conditions. In North Dakota energy development has resulted in population shifts which have seriously tested the resources of local governmental units to provide road maintence, education facilities, police and fire protection, and many other of the ordinary public services. It is the duty of the historian and the teacher of history to document the affects of change on those who have suffered as well as those who benefited from the tyranny of change.

History is one of the forces moderating rapid uncontrolled change. By preserving pieces from the past the historian, both professional and amateur, has assisted in stressing ethnic customs and traditions which tend to resist change. Historians have come to clearly recognize the pluralistic nature of American society, a pluralistic society in which everyone is an American but a society in which Native Americans, Germans from Russia, Ukrainians, Norweigans, and all other ethnic groups may retain what is good and beautiful of their own ethnic culture and traditions.

Teachers of history should, therefore, inculcate and appreciation and respect for differences in cultures, values, and beliefs while at the same time emphasizing those ingredients which unite the United States into one nation. They must clearly recognize that freedoms of belief, religion, speech, and inquire are constantly being challenged. The historian by searching and researching the past becomes the custodian of values as well as the recorder of change.

History, then, is a response to the needs of the individual to know of his past so he/she has direction in the present. It is concerned with both the individual and society. It is therefore a social science as well as a humanity. The philosopher Santayana was correct when he observed that "those who do not know history are doomed to repeat it."

Possible Project for either a College Methods Class or a History Class at the High School Level

Ethnicity is defined by Edith W. King as a sense of peoplehood and commonality derived from kinship patterns and shared historical past, common experiences, religious affiliations, language or linguistic expressions and identity. Ethnic affiliation is central to many peoples' self identity.

Establish an Ethnic Heritage Learning Center

1. Conduct 6-twenty minute cassette tape interviews of a representative ethnic group.
2. Reproduce 18 to 24 newspaper articles from the time period of the interviews that are related to such things as economic growth, immigration, etc.
3. Have the student conduct one interview each of an individual from the appropriate ethnic group.
4. Prepare several different sets of guide questions for potential oral/written projects.
5. EVALUATION--short paper to be presented orally to the class.

Study/Discussion Questions

1. What is history?
2. Why is history significant for everyone in this age of high technology?
3. Why are so many students disinterested in the study of history?
4. What is your philosophy of history?
5. Develop/discuss ways in which you can generate an interest in historical study among students.

EVALUATION

Informal Evaluation
National Assessment of Educational Progress
Program Evaluation
Program Evaluation Goal Setting

North Dakota Landscapes by Deb Erickson

Informal Evaluation

Evaluation is an important part of the learning process. It differs from testing as we usually understand that process. Testing, as normally used, is an end in itself. Material is often presented to a class, a test is given, scores are recorded, new material is presented and the process is repeated. Evaluation may involve testing but it is much more than that. It has been said that one of the difficulties of this fast-moving world is that men are always prescribing for the yesterday they understand rather than the today they do not, and it would be wise if man took the wisdom he learned from yesterday and planned for a better today. In an evaluation process the information gleaned is used as a "jumping off" place for relearning to happen or extended learning to begin. Planning for corrective learning or additional learning is the main reason for adopting an evaluation component in a social studies program.

To begin a program of evaluation we need to ascertain what knowledge a student has gained, what skills a student has learned and can use, how well he can think, and what values or attitudes he demonstrates. This information provides a basis for planning the next step in the learning process. Most successful social studies teachers view evaluation as a continuous on-going process that builds upon previous information. Gaining the needed information is not an easy task because certain areas in a social studies program are very difficult to measure, such as growth in a child's ability to think. It may involve methods and techniques that are new to many teachers or use up much of a teacher's precious time. Nevertheless, some discussion of a current method used by successful social studies teachers might be helpful. This method incorporates a belief that an effective evaluation of any program begins with self-evaluation by both the teacher and the student. As a teacher or a student learns to assume a reflective stance, the chance for quality learning to take place is greatly increased. Following are questions that might assist in that process:

FOR THE TEACHER:

* What are my goals for this course?
* Are these goals clear in my mind?
* How do I introduce materials and concepts?
* What opportunity do I give students to discuss or to disagree?
* How do I plan for individual abilities?
* How do I plan for different learning styles?
* How does my materials fit the students' age?
* Are my expectations for each child realistic?
* Do I respect my students?
* Do I praise my students too much or too little?
* Do I have a sense of humor?
* Do I develop attitudes, values and skills as well as transmit knowledge?
* How do I correlate social studies with other curriculum areas? (i.e. music, literature, science, etc.)
* What use do I make of audio-visuals? (Flannel boards, pictures, tapes, overhead, maps, charts, filmstrips, etc.)
* Am I positive or negative in my relationships with students?
* Do I refrain from using sarcasm as a teaching tool?
* Do I believe I am a teacher of the communications skills? (i.e. writing, speaking, reading, and listening)
* Do I teach tolerance, cooperation, civic responsibility, pride in our government, responsibility, and love of learning?

* Do I teach appreciation for self, others?
* Do I teach enjoyment of work and leisure time?
* Do I use drama, role playing, human and material community resources?
* Is my classroom environment aesthetically pleasing and intellectually interesting?
* Do I help students learn about the future by looking at and understanding the past and present?
* Do I research my topic and find interesting detail to present?
* Do my students trust me?
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*

FOR THE STUDENT:

* Do I understand the material?
* Do I set goals for myself?
* Am I interested in the topic?
* Do I ask questions that clarify concepts for me?
* Am I able to find the purpose for studying social studies and relate it to my total learning?
* Do I have all the information I need?
* Do I finish all assigned tasks?
* How well do I study?
* Does my paper look as good or better than others I have done?
* Do I try to find creative ways to express myself?
* Do I anticipate future information?
* Do I communicate my thoughts and ideas effectively?
* Do I talk too little or too much?
* Do I listen carefully?
* Do I work cooperatively with teachers and students when required?
* Do I do my share when working in large groups, small groups?
* Do I respect my teacher and others?
* Do I have a sense of humor?
*
*
*

Teachers need to be aware that learning happens in uneven spurts, in unexpected ways, and at unusual times. They need to feel supported by administration and peers as they proceed through self-evaluation dialogue. Students need the same support from their teachers. Elements of trust must be present in the classroom so that a student feels safe to experiment with ideas. Risk taking needs to be minimized and opportunity to problem solve needs to be constantly available. In addition, there are a number of tools currently being used by students and teachers to assist in the collection of information. Besides the use of questions these other evaluative tools include

* Samples of students' work, dated and kept in folders for comparative study
* Logs--kept by the student and the teacher. Some teachers like to follow one or two children and record accurately their behaviors over a period of time (every third or fourth hour for example). Students write their reaction to what is happening and may or may not share their log.
* Interest inventories--record areas of student interest and plan accordingly when possible
* Check list to be completed by students and teachers for comparative study-looking for areas of agreement and areas of disagreement
* Collections--art work, pictures, stories, etc.
* Conference--teacher and student (parent) sit down and discuss together areas of pleasure or concern and plan for the next period of time based on past performance

* Anecdotal records--keep an on-going record of each child through the year, dated to refresh memory. These might include happenings at lunch, in the classroom, on the playground and informal behavior at home (from consultation with parent.)
* Tests--designed to measure factual knowledge. Information gained from these tests are to be used to reteach.

New and exciting ways to evaluate surface continually. This is but a start. My hope is that you will add your own suggestions in order to personalize the lists and make them more useful for you.

This evaluation process is based on the belief that truth is our ally and devising a plan for teachers and students to discern truth for themselves will move them toward greater excellence.

National Assessment of Educational Progress

Briefly sketched here is a method of program evaluation utilizing the data and released exercises of the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Few schools actively conduct program evaluations; rather, they use achievement test data and teacher/administrator opinion of the relative success of various portions of instruction in the social studies program. The reason most schools offer for not conducting program evaluations is that few teachers know how to conduct them, testing items often are difficult to locate or develop and the lack of research components such as controlled laboratory, comparable classrooms and control groups makes the entire process somewhat subjective any way. Here is a relatively inexpensive and uncomplicated procedure for comparing the social studies program at any given school with that of similar schools across the entire nation while also gaining a reasonable measure of student achievement of selected social studies objectives.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) began in 1964, with private grant funds, although later the Federal Government took over the funding. It was designed to measure the educational achievement of a sample of the U. S. population of ages 9, 13, 17, and 26 to 35 across a range of educational competencies broken into ten curricular areas. Included in those ten areas were citizenship and social studies although these were later combined into one area. In 1969, NAEP was moved to the Educational Commission of the States in Boulder, Colorado, and has since been assessing about one area per year with periodic reassessments.

NAEP has spent more than thirty million dollars in the assessment process. The NAEP model has been called the best, most comprehensive procedure that has ever been designed for collecting data about curricular areas. The NAEP process involves four steps: (1) develop objectives for the curricular area to be measured, (2) develop exercises designed to specifically measure the previously developed objectives, (3) administer these exercises in a standardized way to a carefully selected representative national sample, and (4) report the results to the public in a meaningful way including comparisons by sex, by regional area, by race and by community size.

In the process of development by NAEP at least 11 different panels of people drawn from virtually all walks of life examine the objectives and the exercises to insure that they are accurate, unbiased and non-offensive. In addition, the objectives and exercises are field tested, in most cases in at least two hundred schools.

The NAEP exercises are administered by trained test administrators to a sample chosen, not by NAEP or state education personnel, but, instead, directly

by the U. S. Census Bureau. The results are extensively analyzed by professional educators and by computer techniques.

NAEP has assessed social studies and citizenship several times with the most comprehensive assessments conducted in 1971-72, and 1975-76. Since the NAEP exercises are drawn from a specific objective and measure the attainment of the objective, the entire NAEP testing process is criterion referenced. Each exercise thus becomes important in itself because analysis of scores will show what percentage of students have achieved the particular objective being measured. (In this process, it is virtually meaningless to look at a single student's total score. The test is not designed to measure a single student's performance and cannot accurately be used to determine one student's knowledge of social studies. The primary purpose of this type of assessment is to determine how many students give an acceptable answer to each exercise, thus showing a success rate for the entire social studies program.)

The unique nature of the criterion referencing permits the use of standards for the NAEP exercises in addition to actual results. (Standards, in this sense, are professional judgements on how well students should do in order for their social studies education to be termed successful.) Since NAEP testing includes four age levels, it provides an opportunity to compare maturity or program completion with achievement. (Standards, in this case, would not be the score which a student should receive to be successful but rather would be the total percentage of persons at each of the four selected age levels (9, 13, 17, and young adults) that should score that particular exercise correctly.)

In 1973, a special blue ribbon panel selected by the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) examined each exercise from the NAEP Assessment of Social Studies conducted in 1971-72. This panel established a satisfactory level of performance (standard) for each exercise, expressed as a percentage interval. For example, NAEP exercise #405005-1234 tested students' sense of historical time by asking whether a person in a particular time period could have traveled 50 miles per hour. For nine year olds, the NCSS panel said that 61 to 80 percent of nine year olds should answer the question correctly. For thirteen year olds, the NCSS panel also chose 61 to 80 percent as a satisfactory level. For seventeen year olds and young adults, the NCSS panel indicated that 80 to 100 percent of the persons tested should answer the exercise correctly.

A similar panel of state educators commissioned by the Department of Public Instruction also established satisfactory levels of performance for all the exercises at each age level for the 1972 NAEP assessment. In addition, any local school faculty, or even a single teacher, could establish a satisfactory level of performance for each exercise at a selected age level.

By using the same exercises used by the NAEP in a manner as close to the original assessment as possible, direct parallels can be drawn between the percentage of students answering each exercise correctly and three separate standards: (1) that expressed by the NCSS panel, (2) that expressed by the state Social Studies Committee and (3) that provided at the local level. There is also, available through publications from NAEP which detail the results of the national assessments, an opportunity for direct comparisons of local results with the percent of students scoring each exercise correctly around the nation, in our region and in communities of similar size.

As can easily be seen, the use of NAEP exercises provides a large volume of information through the use of a small number of test exercises. The exercises do test the objectives for which they were designed. This gives the school an opportunity to measure achievement in specific curriculum areas (as examples: economics, geography, social studies skills or citizenship skills). The results provide reasonable data on how well students are achieving each objective.

By using the satisfactory levels of performance, the school can also judge whether their students are performing adequately in the opinion of national

social studies educators, state social studies educators and local social studies educators. By superimposing these separate sets of data the school can also check whether its staff has reasonable expectations. (Are the levels of satisfactory performance too high or too low in comparison with state educators and national educators?)

A further comparison can be drawn between the scores of students at this local school and those students representing the entire country in the original NAEP assessment. Perhaps more pertinent would be a comparison to other students in geographic region and to students in similar size communities across the country. This data, similar to achievement test data, compares students to students and thus provides a separate measure of success of the school instructional program in social studies.

Naturally, the testing procedure is a bit more complicated than sketched out here. It does, however, provide excellent information to measure the success of a school social studies program and it can be conducted with very reasonable cost in terms of both money and time. Teachers desiring to pursue a local program assessment should coordinate it with the school administration and request assistance from the social studies consultant or the Director of Management Information at the Department of Public Instruction in Bismarck.

Program Evaluation

What is Accreditation?

An accredited school is one that seeks and is granted accredited status by providing evidence that the school meets the conditions established for its kind of school. Accreditation may be renewed but only if the school continues to meet the criteria. The policies and standards for accreditation are not rigid and inflexible; they have changed in the past, are being changed now, and will change in the future as the context of North Dakota education changes. North Dakota accreditation standards define the resources--human, fiscal, physical, and procedural--that every school requires if it is to develop a quality program. Standards are even more critical in this era when resources for education must compete for an evershrinking tax dollar.

Does Accreditation Benefit Teachers?

Since accreditation standards are designed to protect and enhance the learning process, they also protect and enhance the teaching process. These protections include the following:

1. The School provides favorable physical conditions for effective instruction.
2. The teacher's colleagues are well qualified in professional and subject matter areas.
3. The administrators are well qualified for their positions by training and experience.
4. The staff has available support programs in the areas of guidance, health, and special education.
5. A coordinated instructional media program, appropriately staffed, equipped, and supplied, is available to complement the learning program.
6. Teaching schedules include time for conferences and instructional planning.

7. Teaching loads permit the adequate performance of teaching duties.
8. Teachers play a significant role in curriculum review and change.
9. Teachers are involved periodically in a comprehensive evaluation of the school's program and in designing a plan for school improvement.

Program Evaluation — A Goal Setting Model

The classification procedures for elementary schools require that school Levels I and II conduct an evaluative procedure which includes a self-study phase. This self-study is intended to allow the school staff the opportunity to analyze and draw conclusions about the various components of the school program. Following the self-study, a team visits the school to confirm the findings of the self-study and, where appropriate, to make additional recommendations.

One self-study instrument used by some schools is the Elementary School Evaluative Criteria produced by the National Study of School Evaluation. This instrument bases the self-study upon an assessment of the community and the needs of the students. A general philosophy and appropriate goals are used to guide the teachers as analyses are made of the various subject matter areas and support services.

Each subject area is matched against a statement of principles. The social studies teacher (like all other teachers) is asked to rate his/her level of acceptance of the principles and the degree to which he/she has implemented the principles. An example of these principles is "children are grouped for instruction according to their diagnosed learning needs." On scales from "1" to "5," the teacher decides (1) how acceptable this principle is and (2) what degree this principle is being implemented.

The Social Studies teacher is also asked to define each area of learning in terms of scope, learning objectives, preparation for making choices in a changing world, improvements suggested by the students, the fostering of creative thinking, meeting the individual needs of students, and the evaluation of pupil achievement.

Additionally, the faculty as a whole is asked to outline its plans for improvement and to project a current status for the program on a scale from "much improvement needed" to "little or no improvement needed."

Following a team visitation which confirms the findings of the self-study and/or makes additional recommendations, the faculty outlines an improvement plan based upon the recommendations which they deem valid. Goals are established, timelines are projected, responsibilities are assigned, and indicators of progress are delineated.

APPENDICES

National Council for the Social Studies: Guidelines

Essentials of Social Studies – NCSS

Multi-ethnic Education– NCSS

The Modern Period of North Dakota – Public Instruction

North Dakota Landscapes by Deb Erickson

Guidelines National Council for the Social Studies

I. A Basic Rationale for Social Studies Education

The basic goal of social studies education is to prepare young people to be humane, rationale, participating citizens in a world that is becoming increasingly interdependent. The enhancement of human dignity through learning and commitment to rational processes as principal means of attaining that end are concerns shared with other disciplines. The other institutions of society also share with the schools a powerful influence upon the civic education of the young. Social studies education provides the only structured school or community focus for the preparation of citizens. A commitment to foster human dignity and rational process are key to the structure of the social studies curriculum.

Human dignity means equal access to the rights and responsibilities associated with membership in a culture. In American culture, human dignity has long been sought through the struggle to implement ideas such as due process of law, social and economic justice, democratic decision making, free speech, religious freedom, self respect, and group identity. The idea of human dignity is dynamic and complex, and its definition likely to vary according to time and place. The essential meaning, however, remains unchanged: each person should have opportunity to know, to choose, and to act.

Rational processes refer to any systematic intellectual efforts to generate, validate, or apply knowledge. They subsume both the logical and empirical modes of knowing as well as strategies for evaluating and decision making. Rationality denotes a critical and questioning approach to knowledge but also implies a need for discovering, proposing, and creating; the rational person doubts but also believes. The ultimate power of rational processes resides in the explicit recognition of the opportunity to decide for oneself in accord with the evidence available, the values one chooses, and the rules of logic. Therein lies the link between human dignity and the rational processes.

But without action, neither knowledge nor rational processes are of much consequence. This century has witnessed countless blatant violation of human dignity in the presence of supposedly well educated populaces. It has been frequently asserted that knowledge is power; however, there is little evidence to assert that people who know what is true will do what is considered right. Commitment to human dignity must put the power of knowledge to use in the service of humanity. Whatever students of the social studies learn should impel them to apply their knowledge, abilities, and commitments toward the improvement of the human condition.

As knowledge without action is impotent, so action without knowledge is reprehensible. Those who seek to resolve social issues without concomitant understanding often tend not only to behave irresponsibly and erratically but in ways that damage their own future and the human condition. Therefore, knowledge, reason, commitment to human dignity, and action are to be regarded as complementary and inseparable.

Knowledge

From its inception the school has been viewed as the social institution charged with transmitting knowledge to the young. Yet, despite this long-

standing responsibility, it would be difficult to demonstrate that the school has handled this task well or that standards of accuracy and validity have been systematically applied to the information presented in the classroom. Nor can many schools assert that their curricula deal effectively with significant and powerful ideas.

Furthermore, the knowledge utilized by the school has reflected the biases of the white middle class and has distorted the role of minority groups within our own nation and of non-western cultures throughout the world. Such distortions have often prevented white people as well as members of minority groups from fully understanding themselves and their culture. Such practices are clearly inconsistent with the requirements of individuals who live in an increasingly complex, pluralistic society and in an interdependent world.

Knowledge about the real world and knowledge about the worthiness or personal and social judgements are basic objectives of social studies instruction. Reliable beliefs are achieved by following the accepted canons of empirical inquiry, logical reasoning, and humanistic valuing, procedures clearly rooted in the twin values of rational process and human dignity. It would be naive, however, for social studies educators to disregard the fact that many people consider other ways of knowing such as revelation, common sense, and intuition as entirely legitimate and even desirable. A major task of social studies education is to demonstrate the power of rationally-based knowledge to facilitate global stewardship and human progress, while at the same time demonstrating that the means of persuasion to this point of view are quite as important as the ends.

The traditional and obvious sources of knowledge for social studies are the social science disciplines.* They are and should remain important sources. However, the reasons for deriving social studies knowledge from the social sciences are not self-evident. Careful thought ultimately justifies such knowledge on arguments revolving around the "needs" of individual students and of society for powerful ideas, dependable information, and reliable methods of inquiry. The question about appropriate sources of knowledge for social studies is well-phrased in terms of the "needs" of students and society, rather than the arbitrary and limiting assumption that social studies and the social sciences are identical.

Broadly based social issues cross the boundaries of the academic disciplines. The notion that the disciplines must always be studied in their pure form or that social studies content should be drawn only from the social sciences is insufficient for a curriculum intended to demonstrate the relationship between knowledge and rationally-based social participation. It is true that the social sciences can make a significant contribution to clarifying the basic issues which continue to require social attention. But the efforts of social scientists to develop and understanding of human behavior through research are not necessarily related to persistent human problems and are seldom intended to arrive at the resolution of value conflicts or the formulation of public policy. Social studies is something more than the sum of the social sciences.

Many kinds of knowledge are important contenders for inclusion in social studies. For instance, an additional and important source may be those sectors of our culture which are seldom recognized by the research disciplines, but which are diffused through the mass media, sometimes in offbeat sources, and reflected in the arts. Another source may be the interests and values of students. In a rapidly changing society it is often young people who have greatest access to emergent knowledge. If for no other reason, and there are other reasons, the rate of change alone makes it urgent that the social studies gives serious consideration to the interests and values that students hold about themselves and society. Ideally, then, various sources of knowledge,

* We include history here, of course, under the social science rubric.

including the social sciences, the humanities, the natural sciences, the communication media, and the perceptions of students would all contribute to the social studies program.

The knowledge component of the curriculum envisioned in these guidelines serves three more particular functions. First, it provides historical perspective. A sense of the past serves as a buffer against detachment and presentism-living just for today-and thereby assists an individual in establishing cultural identity. Second, knowledge helps a person perceive patterns and systems in the environment, including a global perspective. It is this ordering function which makes the social universe, even with its increasing complexity, more understandable. Third is the function of knowledge as the foundation for social participation. Without valid knowledge, participation in the affairs of society could be ineffectual and irresponsible.

In summary, the broad function of knowledge, whatever its source, is to provide the reservoir of data, ideas, concepts, generalizations, and theories which, in combination with thinking, valuing, and social participation, can be used by the student to function rationally and humanely.

Abilities

Abilities provide the means of achieving objectives, and ideally one who is able and skillful can reach objectives efficiently. Included in the ability concept are intellectual, data processing, and human relations competencies.

Intellectual skills, the varied processes of thinking, have recently received increased emphasis in the social studies curriculum. Lower level intellectual operations such as memorization often characterize student assignments, questions, and examinations. Less attention has been given to more complex cognitive processes such as analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating. Inquiry-oriented approaches, which represent one effort to alleviate this situation, have received considerable attention in current educational literature, but extensive practice and support are not yet evident.

Thinking competencies serve several functions. In the first place, they provide the prime path to acquiring knowledge. They also enable an individual to make use of knowledge by asking significant questions; they permit the analysis of conflicts; they enable problem solving in both convergent and divergent ways; they enhance decision making power; and they support efforts to form and clarify values. Such intellectual skills are of paramount importance in resolving social issues. In democratic societies which place a high premium on responsible flexibility, well-developed thinking processes act as a buffer against intellectual rigidity and represent a vital link between knowledge and social participation.

Although thinking entails a great variety of intellectual operations, two facets, divergent thinking and valuing, require special comment. They are not only central to social studies education but are also two confusing terms which are employed in the field.

Divergent thinking (defined in terms of flexibility, spontaneity, and originality) often provides uncommon answers to difficult questions. Individuals make the most of their potential powers by not staying with what is common, regular, already known, but by encountering the challenge of the open-ended unsolved and by attempting to cope with perplexing and sometimes frustrating situations. What is needed is a climate which encourages fresh insights. But the need for divergence is not to be confused with irresponsible deviance of "just being different for its own sake." Divergent thinking is highly demanding: (1) it relies on extensive knowledge, ideational fluency, and the ability to formulate and restructure questions; and (2) it requires

both the courage to risk uncertainity and error, and to express minority points of view.

Valuing must be considered, in part, as an intellectual operation. Social studies confronts complex questions rooted in conflicting attitudes and values. Therefore, it is neither desirable nor possible for social studies teachers to attempt to establish a "value free" situation in the classroom; student behavior, teacher behavior, subject matter, and instructional materials all are the products of value-laden judgment. Any study of values should be conducted in a free and open atmosphere. Students must become experienced in discerning fact from opinion, objectivity from bias. Students should learn to anticipate that people living in different cultures are likely to hold different values. Students need to learn to identify their own value assumptions along with those of others, to project and evaluate consequences of one value stance or another. When valuing is thought of as a rational process, students can be helped to clarify and strengthen their own commitments.

Basic skills are often and rightly given considerable attention at the elementary school level. These skills include competence to locate and compile information, to present and interpret data, and to organize and assess source material. Social studies teachers should assume special responsibility for instruction in reading materials directly related to social studies. However, higher levels of proficiency using the tools of social scientists--for example--identifying hypotheses, making warranted inferences, and reading critically--cannot be attained unless they are incorporated in the curriculum of all grades, K-12. If provision is not made at all grade levels for the sequential development of these competencies, as well as continuous reinforcement of basic skills, growth will be asserted at a low level, and students will be hampered in employing the more powerful extensions of these abilities.

Ability development also concerns the competencies associated with social behavior. Effective interpersonal relations seem to depend on a sensitivity to the needs and interests of others, adequately developed communication skills, and the ability to cope with conflict and authority. In the classroom and in the school at large students should have abundant opportunities to work out social relationships at the face-to-face level. Students should have experience in the social arena in dealing with not only calm, rational inquiry but also with controversial issues. They should undergo the demands placed on them both as leaders and followers and should learn to make contributions in both roles. When students hold unpopular views, they can learn to function as thoughtful critics, seeking to bring about needed reform through legitimate processes. Neither aloofness from obligation to other individuals nor the chaos created by anarchy is acceptable.

Abilities are not developed as a result of accumulating information, isolated drill sessions, or exhortations. Instead, these proficiencies are acquired through real opportunities for constant practice and use, systematically planned for by curriculum developers and teachers. Equally important, however, is the recognition of skills as the critical bond between knowledge, valuing, and social participation.

Valuing

Social studies education neither can nor should evade questions of value. Value orientations are the foundations of social institutions, and the value positions of individuals and groups have consequences for action. Contemporary society continues to be confronted by a host of complex problems on a global scale whose solutions are of importance to the individual member. War, racism, environmental concerns, energy issues, urban deterioration, and impersonal

organizations--society can contend with none of these without searching consideration of values.

Social studies education should, however, avoid mere indoctrinations. Neither young people nor society will deal constructively with present social realities through blind acceptance of specified ways of behaving, or of particular positions on public issues, or even of basic cultural values. Limiting the school's role to indoctrination is not only ineffectual, but incompatiable with the principles of a free society.

The role of the school as an agent for inculcating in the young widely held societal norms, standards of behavior, and ideological preferences is complex. The issue is clouded with conflicting attitudes held by various groups. Cultural pluralism in America and throughout the world rightly hinders the school from seeking or producing uniform values among its students. It is well to remember that the school is properly only one force influencing the values of the young.

What the school can contribute is impressive. It can help the young recognize that among Planet Earth's people there are many sets of values rooted in experience and legitimate in terms of culture. Such a realization is a force against ethnocentrism.

The school can also provide opportunities for free examination of the value dilemmas underlying social issues and problems that affect the everyday lives of students. Students need systematic and supportive help in examining differences among other persons and groups and in clarifying the value conflicts within themselves. Students must come to understand that although evidence is important, facts alone do not always determine people's decisions. There are times when people suspend judgment, and occasions when problems have no set answers. The expectation that problems can be examined in an increasingly sophisticated way can contribute to students' feelings of competence and sense of identity. Some may even have faith that thoughtful sensitivity to one's own values and those of others will foster decent and humane values.

The school itself is a special institution, and the values embedded in its daily operation can exert a powerful influence. The school can make clear its own valuing of human dignity by practicing it in the school as a whole and in social studies classrooms. Young children especially must learn the core values in the course of daily living; the school can hardly afford to escape its responsibilities to them. Fair play, justice, free speech, self-respect, decision-making opportunities, the right of privacy, and denial of racism ought to be expected for all students and teachers in every classroom. Schools have been more successful in professing the values associated with human dignity than in putting them into daily practice. Indeed, in many schools the practice of those values would mean drastic change. Avoiding blind indoctrination need not mean blandly ignoring basic cultural values.

Candid recognition that the school and its social studies programs cannot be value-free may foster the serious consideration of the proper role of the school.

Social Participation

Social participation in a democracy calls for individual behavior guided by the value of human dignity and rationally and directed toward the resolution of problems confronting society. The practices of the school and particularly of social studies programs have not provided for active and systematic student citizenship education, the practical applications of knowledge and ideas in this area have not been fully realized. A commitment to democratic participation suggests that the school abandon futile efforts to insulate

pupils from social reality and, instead, find ways to involve them as active citizens.

Social participation should mean the application of knowledge, thinking, and commitment in the social arena--at the local, state, national, and international levels. An avenue for interaction and identification with society can build an awareness of personal competency--awareness that one can make a contribution--an ingredient essential for a positive self-concept. Programs ought to develop young adults who are able to identify and analyze both local and global problems and who are willing to participate actively in developing alternatives and solutions for them.

Extensive involvement by students of all ages in the activities of their community is essential. Many of these activities may be in problem areas held, at least by some, to be controversial. The involvement may take the form of observation or information-seeking, such as field trips, attending meetings, and interviews. It may take the form of political campaigning, community service or improvement, or even responsible demonstrations. The school should not only provide channels for such activities, but build them into the design of its K-12 social studies program.

Education in a democratic framework clearly requires that such participation must be voluntarily chosen; no student should be required to engage in what he/she has not defined as desirable. Nor should social participation be undertaken without systematic, thoughtful deliberation. To do so could violate the values of human dignity or rational process. Educational institutions can make a significant contribution to society by providing students with the knowledge and experience necessary to be effective, singly or as part of organized groups, in dealing with social problems.

It is essential that these four curriculum components be viewed as equally important; ignoring any of them weakens a social studies program. The relationship among knowledge, abilities, valuing, and social participation is tight and dynamic. Each interacts with the others. Each nourishes the others.

Essentials of Social Studies

Public concern about basic knowledge and the basic skills in education is valid. Society should continually seek out, define, and then provide for every person those elements of education that are essential to a productive and meaningful life.

The basic elements of knowledge and skill are only a part of the essentials of education. In era dominated by cries for going "back to the basics," for "minimal competencies," and for "survival skills," society should reject simplistic solutions and declare a commitment to the essentials of education.

A definition of the essentials of education should avoid three easy tendencies: to limit the essentials to "the three R's" in a society that is highly technological and complex; to define the essentials by what is tested at a time when tests are severely limited in what they can measure; and to reduce the essentials to a few "skills" when it is obvious that people use a combination of skills, knowledge, and feelings to come to terms with their world. By rejecting these simplistic tendencies, educators will avoid concentration on training in a few skills at the expense of preparing students for the changing world in which they must live.

Educators should resist pressures to concentrate solely upon easy-to-teach, easy-to-test bits of knowledge, and must go beyond short-term objectives of training for jobs or producing citizens who can perform routine tasks but cannot apply their knowledge or skills, cannot reason about their society, and cannot make informed judgments.

What are the essentials of education?

Educators agree that the overarching goal of education is to develop informed, thinking citizens capable of participating in both domestic and world affairs. The development of such citizens depends not only upon education for citizenship, but also upon other essentials of education shared by all subjects.

The interdependence of skills and content is the central concept of the essentials of education. Skills and abilities do not grow in isolations from content. In all subjects, students develop skills in using language and other symbol systems; they develop the ability to reason; they undergo experiences that lead to emotional and social maturity. Students master these skills and abilities through observing, listening, reading, talking, and writing about science, mathematics, history and the social sciences, the arts and other aspects of our intellectual, social and cultural heritage. As soon as they learn about their world and its heritage they necessarily deepen their skills in language and reasoning and acquire the basis for emotional, aesthetic and social growth. They also become aware of the world around them and develop an understanding and appreciation of the interdependence of the many facets of that world.

More specifically, the essentials of education include, among others, the ability to use language, to think, and to communicate effectively; to use mathematical knowledge and methods to solve problems; to reason logically; to use abstractions and symbols with power and ease; to apply and to understand scientific knowledge and methods; to make use of technology and to understand its limitations; to express oneself through the arts and to understand the artistic expressions of others; to understand other languages and cultures; to understand spatial relationships; to apply knowledge about health, nutrition, and

physical activity; to acquire the capacity to meet unexpected challenges; to make informed value judgements; to recognize and to use one's full learning potential; and to prepare to go on learning for a lifetime.

Such a definition calls for a realization that all disciplines must join together and acknowledge their interdependence. Determining the essentials of education is a continuing process, far more demanding and significant than listing isolated skills assumed to be basic. Putting the essentials of education into practice requires instructional programs based on this new sense of interdependence.

Educators must also join with many segments of society and specify the essentials of education more fully. Among these segments are legislators, school boards, parents, students, workers' organizations, businesses, publishers, and other groups and individuals with an interest in education. All must now participate in a coordinated effort on behalf of society to confront this task. Everyone has a stake in the essentials of education.

Organizations for the Essentials of Education

American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance
American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
American Theater Association
Association for Educational Communications and Technology
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
Council for Basic Education
Home Economics Education Association
International Reading Association
Music Educators National Conference
National Art Education Association
National Association for Elementary School Principals
National Association of Secondary School Principals
National Business Education Association
National Council for the Social Studies
National Council of Teachers of English
National Council of Teacher of Mathematics
National Education Association
National Science Teachers Association
Speech Communications Association

Citizen participation in public life is essential to the health of our democratic system. Effective social studies programs help prepare young people who can identify, understand and work to solve the problems that face our increasingly diverse nation and interdependent world. Organized according to a professionally designed scope and sequence, such programs:

1. Begin in pre-school and continue throughout formal education and include a range of related electives at the secondary level.
2. Foster individual and cultrual identity.
3. Include observation of and participation in the school and community as part of the curriculum.
4. Deal with critical issues and the world as it really is.
5. Prepare students to make decisons based on American principles.

6. Demand high standards of performance and measure student success by means that require more than the memorization of information.
7. Depend on innovative teachers broadly prepared in history, the humanities, the social sciences, educational theory and practice.
8. Involve community members as resources for program development and student involvement.
9. Lead to citizenship participation in public affairs.

In 1979, the National Council for the Social Studies joined with eleven other professional associations to reaffirm the value of a balanced education.* We now enumerate the essentials of exemplary social studies programs. Such programs contribute not only to the development of students' capacity to read and compute, but also link knowledge and skills with an understanding of an commitment to democratic principles and their application.

Knowledge

Students need knowledge of the world at large and the world at hand, the world of individuals and the world of institutions, the world past, the world present and future. An exemplary social studies curriculum links information presented in the classroom with experiences gained by students through social and civic observation, analysis and participation.

Classroom instruction which relates content to information drawn from the media and from experience focuses on the following areas of knowledge:

- History and culture of our nation and the world.
- Geography--physical, political, cultural and economic.
- Government--theories, systems, structures and processes.
- Economics--theories, systems, structures and processes.
- Social institutions--the individual, the group, the community and the society.
- Intergroup and interpersonal relationships.
- World-wide relationships of all sorts between and among nations, race cultures and institutions.

From this knowledge base, exemplary programs teach skills, concepts and generalizations that can help students understand the sweep of human affairs and ways of managing conflict consistent with democratic procedures.

Democratic Beliefs

Fundamental beliefs drawn from the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution with its Bill of Rights form the basic principles of our democratic constitutional order. Exemplary school programs do not indoctrinate students to accept these ideas blindly, but present knowledge about their historical derivation and contemporary application essential to understanding our society and its institutions. Not only should such ideas be discussed as they relate to the curriculum and to current affairs, they should also be mirrored by teachers in their classrooms and embodied in the school's daily operations.

These democratic beliefs depend upon such practices as due process, equal protections and civic participation, and are rooted in the concepts of:

- Justice
- Equality
- Responsibility
- Freedom

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*Essentials of Education Statement, Washington, D.C., 1980

- Diversity
- Privacy

Thinking Skills

It is important that students connect knowledge with beliefs and action. To do that, thinking skills can be developed through constant systematic practice throughout the years of formal schooling. Fundamental to the goals of social studies education are those skills which help assure rational behavior in social settings.

In addition to strengthening reading computation, there is a wide variety of thinking skills essential to the social studies which can be grouped into four major categories:

- Data Gathering Skills. Learning to: Acquire information by observation; Locate information from a variety of sources; Compile, organize, and evaluate information; Extract and interpret information; Communicate orally and in writing
- Intellectual Skills. Learning to: Compare things, ideas, events, and situations on the basis of similarities and differences; Classify or group items in categories; Ask appropriate and searching questions; Draw conclusions or inferences from evidence; Arrive at general ideas; Make sensible predictions from generalization
- Decision Making Skills. Learning to: Consider alternative solutions; Consider the consequences of each solution; Make decisions and justify them in relationship to democratic principles; Act, based on those decisions
- Interpersonal Skills. Learning to: See things from the point of view of others; Understand one's own beliefs, feelings, abilities, and shortcomings and how they affect relations with others; Use group generalizations without stereotyping and arbitrarily classifying individuals; Recognize value in individuals different from one's self and groups different from one's own; Work effectively with others as a group member; Give and receive constructive criticism; Accept responsiblity and respect the rights and property of others

Participation Skills

As a civic participant, the individual uses the knowledge, beliefs, and skills learned in the school, the social studies classroom, the community, and the family as the basis for action.

Connecting the classroom with the community provides many opportunities for students to learn basic skills of participation, from observation to advocacy. To teach participation, social studies programs need to emphasize the following kinds of skills:

Work effectively in groups--organizing, planning, making decisions, taking action
Form coalitions of interest with other groups
Persuade, compromise bargain
Practice patience and perseverance in working for one's goal
Develop experience in cross-cultural situations

Civic Action

Social studies programs which combine the acquisition of knowledge and

skills with an understanding of the application of democratic beliefs to life through practice at social participation represent an ideal professional standard. Working to achieve that ideal is vital to the future of our society. However, even if excellent programs of social studies education were in place, there would often remain a missing element--the will to take part in public affairs. Formal education led by creative and humane teachers can provide the knowledge, the tools, the commitment for a thoughtful consideration of issues and can even stimulate the desire to be active. But to achieve full participations, our diverse society must value and model involvement to emphasize for young people the merit of taking part in public life.

As we approach the bicentennial of our Constitiuion and Bill of Rights, is it not time for us to recommit ourselves as a nation to strong education for civic responsibility?

Multi-ethnic Education— NCSS

The following rational and guidelines for multiethnic (multi-cultural) have been taken from the October issue of Social Education. These guidelines were developed by the National Council for the Social Studies task force on ethnic studies. Reprints of the entire report of the task force are available through NCSS.

A Rationale for Ethnic Pluralism

Three major factors make multiethnic education a necessity: (1) ethnic pluralism is a societal reality that influences the lives of young people; (2) in one way or another, individuals do acquire knowledge or beliefs, sometimes invalid, about ethnic groups and ethnicity; (3) beliefs and knowledge about ethnic groups limit the perspectives of many and make a difference, often a negative difference, in the opportunities and options of members of ethnic groups. Because ethnicity is important in the lives of many Americans, it is important that all members of our society develop "ethnic literacy," a solid based understanding of ethnicity and ethnic groups. Schools cannot afford to ignore their responsibility to contribute to the development of ethnic literacy and understanding. Only a well-conceived, sensitive, thorough, and continuous program of multiethnic education can create the broadly based ethnic literacy so necessary for the future of our nation and world society.

In the United States, ethnic diversity has remained visible despite the assimilation process that takes place in any society made up of many different ethnic groups. Although ethnic affiliations are weak for many Americans, a large number still demonstrate at least some attachments to their ethnic cultures and to the symbols of their ancestral traditions. The values and behavior of many Americans are heavily influenced by their ethnicity. Ethnic identification may also be increased by the discrimination experienced by many because of their racial characteristics, language or culture.

In recent years, emerging ethnic revitalization movements have greatly intensified ethnic attachments among the members of many groups in American society. These movements have resulted in what some observers have called a "new pluralism." Clearly, ethnicity is a potent force in contemporary American society. The challenge of our nation faces is whether ethnicity will function as a positive force rather than a factor which limits equality of opportunity for many groups in the United States.

The Guidelines presented in this document are predicated on a democratic ideology in which ethnic diversity is viewed as a positive, integral ingredient. A democratic society protects and provides opportunities for ethnic pluralism. Ethnic pluralism is based on the following four premises:

1. ETHNIC DIVERSITY SHOULD BE RECOGNIZED AND RESPECTED AT INDIVIDUAL, GROUP, AND SOCIETAL LEVELS.
2. ETHNIC DIVERSITY PROVIDES A BASIS FOR SOCIETAL COHESIVENESS AND SURVIVAL.
3. EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY SHOULD BE AFFORDED TO MEMBERS OF ALL ETHNIC GROUPS.
4. ETHNIC INDENTIFICATION SHOULD BE OPTIONAL FOR INDIVIDUALS.

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PART THREE

The Multiethnic Education Program Evaluation Checklist

RATING: Strongly ⟷ Hardly at all	GUIDELINES
	1.0 Does ethnic pluralism permeate the total school environment?
	1.1 Is ethnic content incorporated into all aspects of the curriculum, preschool through grade twelve and beyond?
	1.2 Do instructional materials treat ethnic differences and groups honestly, realistically, and sensitively?
	1.3 Do school libraries and resource centers have a variety of materials on the histories, experiences, and cultures of many different ethnic groups?
	1.4 Do school assemblies, decorations, speakers, holidays, and heroes reflect ethnic group differences?
	1.5 Are extracurricular activities multiracial and multiethnic?
	2.0 Do school policies and procedures foster positive interactions among the different ethnic group members of the school?
	2.1 Do school policies accommodate the behavioral patterns, learning styles, and orientations of those ethnic group members actually in the school?
	2.2 Does the school provide a diversity of instruments and techniques in teaching and counseling students of different ethnic groups?
	2.3 Do school policies recognize the holidays and festivities of different ethnic groups?
	2.4 Do school policies avoid instructional and guidance practices based on stereotyped and ethnocentric perceptions?
	2.5 Do school policies respect the dignity and worth of students as individuals *and* as members of ethnic groups?

RATING: Strongly ⟷ Hardly at all	GUIDELINES
	3.0 Are the school staffs (administrative, instructional, counseling, and supportive) multiethnic and multiracial?
	3.1 Has the school established and enforced policies for recruiting and maintaining multiethnic, multiracial staffs?
	4.0 Does the school have systematic, comprehensive, mandatory, and continuing multiethnic staff development programs?
	4.1 Are teachers, librarians, counselors, administrators, and the supportive staff included in the staff development programs?
	4.2 Do the staff development programs include a variety of experiences (such as lectures, field experiences, curriculum projects, etc.)?
	4.3 Do the staff development programs provide opportunities to gain knowledge and understanding about different ethnic groups?
	4.4 Do the staff development programs provide opportunities for participants to explore their attitudes and feelings about their own ethnicity and others'?
	4.5 Do the staff development programs examine the verbal and nonverbal patterns of interethnic group interactions?
	4.6 Do the staff development programs provide opportunities for learning how to create and select multiethnic instructional materials and how to incorporate ethnic content into curriculum materials?
	5.0 Does the curriculum reflect the ethnic learning styles of students within the school?
	5.1 Is the curriculum designed to help students learn how to function effectively in different cultural environments and master more than one cognitive style?
	5.2 Do the objectives, instructional strategies, and learning materials reflect the cultures and cognitive styles of the different ethnic groups within the school?
	6.0 Does the curriculum provide continuous opportunities for students to develop a better sense of self?
	6.1 Does the curriculum help students strengthen their self-identities?

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RATING	GUIDELINES
Strongly ← → Hardly at all	
	6.2 Is the curriculum designed to help students develop greater self-understanding?
	6.3 Does the curriculum help students improve their self-concepts?
	6.4 Does the curriculum help students better understand themselves in the light of their ethnic heritages?
	7.0 Does the curriculum help students to understand the wholeness of the experiences of ethnic groups?
	7.1 Does the curriculum include the study of societal problems some ethnic group members experience, such as racism, prejudice, discrimination, and exploitation?
	7.2 Does the curriculum include the study of historical experiences, cultural patterns, *and* social problems of different ethnic groups?
	7.3 Does the curriculum include both positive and negative aspects of ethnic group experiences?
	7.4 Does the curriculum present ethnics as active participants in society *and* as subjects of oppression and exploitation?
	7.5 Does the curriculum examine the diversity within each ethnic group's experience?
	7.6 Does the curriculum present ethnic group experience as dynamic and continuously changing?
	7.7 Does the curriculum examine the experiences of ethnic group people instead of focusing exclusively on the "heroes"?
	8.0 Does the curriculum help students identify and understand the ever-present conflict between ideals and realities in human societies?
	8.1 Does the curriculum help students identify and understand the value conflicts in problematic situations?
	8.2 Does the curriculum examine differing views of ideals and realities among ethnic groups?
	9.0 Does the curriculum explore and clarify ethnic alternatives and options within American society?
	9.1 Does the teacher create a classroom atmosphere reflecting an acceptance of and respect for ethnic differences?
	9.2 Does the teacher create a classroom atmosphere allowing realistic consideration of ethnic alternatives and options?

RATING	GUIDELINES
Strongly ← → Hardly at all	
	10.0 Does the curriculum promote values, attitudes, and behaviors which support ethnic pluralism?
	10.1 Does the curriculum help students examine differences within and among ethnic groups?
	10.2 Does the curriculum foster attitudes supportive of cultural democracy and other democratic ideals and values?
	10.3 Does the curriculum reflect ethnic pluralism?
	10.4 Does the curriculum present ethnic pluralism as a vital societal force that encompasses both potential strength and potential conflict?
	11.0 Does the curriculum help students develop decision-making abilities, social participation skills, and a sense of political efficacy needed for effective citizenship?
	11.1 Does the curriculum help students develop the ability to distinguish facts from interpretations and opinions?
	11.2 Does the curriculum help students develop skills in finding and processing information?
	11.3 Does the curriculum help students develop sound knowledge, concepts, generalizations, and theories about issues related to ethnicity?
	11.4 Does the curriculum help students develop sound methods of thinking about ethnic issues?
	11.5 Does the curriculum help students develop skills in clarifying and justifying their values and relating them to their understanding of ethnicity?
	11.6 Does the curriculum include opportunities to use knowledge, valuing, and thinking in decision-making on ethnic matters?
	11.7 Does the curriculum provide opportunities for students to take action on social problems affecting ethnic groups?
	11.8 Does the curriculum help students develop a sense of efficacy?
	12.0 Does the curriculum help students develop skills necessary for effective interpersonal and inter-ethnic group interactions?
	12.1 Does the curriculum help students understand ethnic reference points which influence communication?
	12.2 Does the curriculum help students try out cross-ethnic experiences and reflect upon them?

RATING (Strongly ⟷ Hardly at all)	GUIDELINES
	13.0 Is the multiethnic curriculum comprehensive in scope and sequence, presenting holistic views of ethnic groups, and an integral part of the total school curriculum?
	13.1 Does the curriculum introduce students to the experiences of persons of widely varying backgrounds in the study of each ethnic group?
	13.2 Does the curriculum discuss the successes and contributions of members of some group in terms of that group's values?
	13.3 Does the curriculum include the role of ethnicity in the local community as well as in the nation?
	13.4 Does content related to ethnic groups extend beyond special units, courses, occasions, and holidays?
	13.5 Are materials written by and about ethnic groups used in teaching fundamental skills?
	13.6 Does the curriculum provide for the development of progressively more complex concepts, abilities, and values?
	13.7 Is the study of ethnicity incorporated in instructional plans rather than being supplementary or additive?
	14.0 Does the curriculum include the continuous study of the cultures, historical experiences, social realities, and existential conditions of ethnic groups with a variety of racial compositions?
	14.1 Does the curriculum include study of several ethnic groups?
	14.2 Does the curriculum include studies of both white and nonwhite groups?
	14.3 Does the curriculum provide for continuity in the examination of aspects of experience affected by race?
	15.0 Are interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches used in designing and implementing the multiethnic curriculum?
	15.1 Are interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary perspectives used in the study of ethnic groups and related issues?
	15.2 Are approaches used authentic and comprehensive explanations of ethnic issues, events, and problems?

RATING (Strongly ⟷ Hardly at all)	GUIDELINES
	16.0 Does the curriculum use comparative approaches in the study of ethnic groups and ethnicity?
	16.1 Does the curriculum focus on the similarities and differences among ethnic groups?
	16.2 Are matters examined from comparative perspectives with fairness to all?
	17.0 Does the curriculum help students to view and interpret events, situations, and conflict from diverse ethnic perspectives and points of view?
	17.1 Are the perspectives of different ethnic groups represented in the instructional program?
	17.2 Are students taught why different ethnic groups often perceive the same historical event or contemporary situation differently?
	17.3 Are the perspectives of each ethnic group presented as valid ways to perceive the past and the present?
	18.0 Does the curriculum conceptualize and describe the development of the United States as a multidirectional society?
	18.1 Does the curriculum view the territorial and cultural growth of the United States as flowing from several directions?
	18.2 Does the curriculum include a parallel study of the various societies which developed in the geo-cultural United States?
	19.0 Does the school provide opportunities for students to participate in the aesthetic experiences of various ethnic groups?
	19.1 Are multiethnic literature and art used to promote empathy for people of different ethnic groups?
	19.2 Are multiethnic literature and art used to promote self-examination and self-understanding?
	19.3 Do students read and hear the poetry, short stories, novels, folklore, plays, essays, and autobiographies of a variety of ethnic groups?
	19.4 Do students examine the music, art, architecture, and dance of a variety of ethnic groups?
	19.5 Do students have available the artistic, musical, and literary expression of the local ethnic communities?
	19.6 Are opportunities provided for students to develop their own artistic, literary, and musical expression?

RATING					GUIDELINES
Strongly	←			→ Hardly at all	
					20.0 Does the school foster the view of ethnic group languages as legitimate communication systems?
					20.1 Are students taught about the nature of languages and dialects?
					20.2 Is the student taught in his or her dominant language or dialect when needed?
					20.3 Does the curriculum explore the role of languages and dialects in self-understanding and within and among ethnic groups?
					20.4 Are the language policies and laws within the United States studied from political perspectives?
					21.0 Does the curriculum make maximum use of local community resources?
					21.1 Are students carefully involved in the continuous study of the local community?
					21.2 Are members of the local ethnic communities continually used as classroom resources?
					21.3 Are field trips to the various local ethnic communities provided for students?
					22.0 Do the assessment procedures used with students reflect their ethnic cultures?
					22.1 Do teachers use a variety of assessment procedures which reflect the ethnic diversity of the students?
					22.2 Do teachers day-to-day assessment techniques take into account the ethnic diversity of the students?
					23.0 Does the school conduct ongoing, systematic evaluations of the goals, methods, and instructional materials used in teaching about ethnicity?
					23.1 Do assessment procedures draw on many sources of evidence from many sorts of people?
					23.2 Does the evaluation program examine school policies and procedures?
					23.3 Does the evaluation program examine the everyday climate of the school?
					23.4 Does the evaluation program examine the effectiveness of curricular programs, academic and non-academic?
					23.5 Are the results of evaluation used to improve the school program?

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STUDY

STUDY

Student
Today
Understanding
Dakota
Yesterday

NORTH DAKOTA GOVERNMENT
AND STATE INSTITUTIONS

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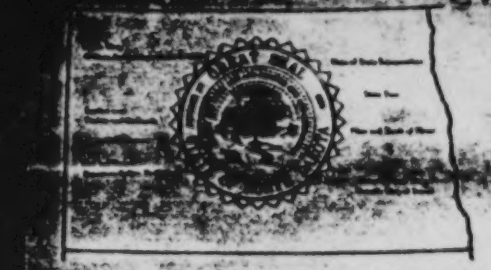

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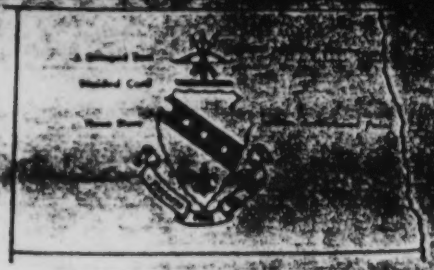

NORTH DAKOTA STATE CREST

THE STATE FLAG

THE STATE TREE

NORTH DAKOTA STATE MOTTO

"Liberty and Union
Now and Forever
One and Inseparable"

NORTH DAKOTA GOVERNMENT AND STATE INSTITUTIONS

by

Darrell McNamara
and
Lowell Thompson

A
Booklet of

PROJECT STUDY

Harvey Public Schools
Harvey, North Dakota 58341

Larry Nudell, Supt.
Keith Rath, Project Director

Lynn M. Davidson, General Editor
Composition by Sandra Buckley

November 15, 1979

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Project STUDY

Project STUDY began as an idea generated by the State Committee for North Dakota Studies of the North Dakota Department of Public Instruction. Harvey Public Schools organized the project and received a federal ESEA Title IV-C grant to have non-professional authors write a series of paperback texts about the history and current status of North Dakota.

The booklets in the Project STUDY series include:

CHRONOLOGICAL HISTORY

The First People of North Dakota
The Developing Indian Culture in North Dakota
Explorers and Fur Traders in North Dakota
Settlement of North Dakota
Statehood and Growth of North Dakota
Declining Years and the Great Depression in North Dakota
The Modern Period of North Dakota

HISTORICAL FICTION

Flickertail in Captivity (Life Among the Indians in Early Times)
One Month West of Sundown (Changing Culture in North Dakota)
Joel, The Story of A Fur Trapper (Frontier Times in North Dakota)
A New Home! A New Land! (Settling in North Dakota)
Row, Brother, Row (Growing up with North Dakota)
Grandma's Diaries (The Depression Years in North Dakota)

TOPIC STUDIES

Agriculture in North Dakota
Dakota People
Geology, Geography and Climate of North Dakota
Natural Resources of North Dakota
North Dakota Government and State Institutions
North Dakota in the World
A Tour of Business and Industry in North Dakota

CREDITS

Illustrations identified by "SHSND" were provided from the photograph collection of the State Historical Society of North Dakota. Those marked "TD-SHD" were provided by the Travel Division of the State Highway Department.

Photographs of colleges and the other state institutions were provided by the institution pictured unless otherwise credited.

Lowell Thompson provided the photograph on top of page 17. The North Dakota Air National Guard provided the other two photographs on page 17. The North Dakota Supreme Court provided the photograph on page 20.

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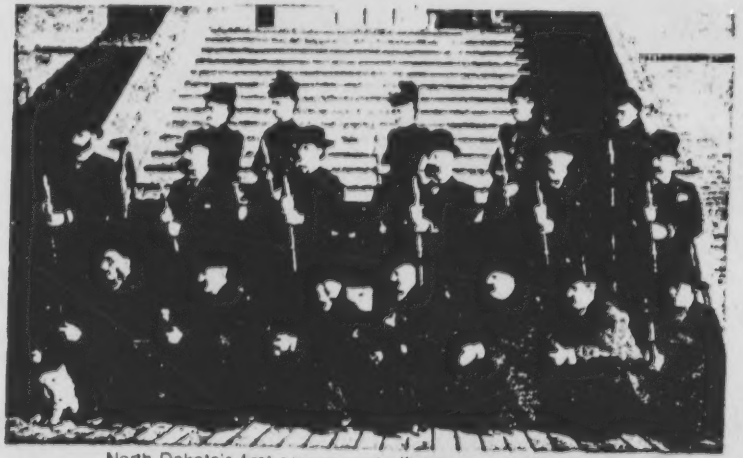
A government is always important when many people live close together. From earliest times, some kind of government has been a vital part of every society. When we think of government, we generally mean the government of a city, a county, a state. But, just as important, are the governments of a family, a school, a church, a social club or a baseball team. The study of government requires a close look at all types of government to learn how they work and how they are related.

NORTH DAKOTA BECOMES A STATE

Before North Dakota became a state in 1889, it was a part of Dakota Territory. The capitol of Dakota Territory was originally located in what is now Yankton, South Dakota. The Territorial Governor, the U.S Marshall, and other officials were appointed by the President of the United States.

There are many interesting stories about the "wild" Dakota Territory. One story took place just a few years before North Dakota became a state. A man names Moses Armstrong was running for Congress. Moses had been invited by his friend, General T.C. Campbell, to speak at a meeting in a neighboring county. As the general was introducing Moses, his hat was shot right off the top of his head by someone in the unruly crowd. The general, however, kept right on speaking. When it came time for Moses to give his speech, he hesitated. The general encouraged him to speak, saying, "The time to do your praying, Moses, is before you cross the county line."



North Dakota's first government officials posed with rifles on the Capitol steps. (SHSND)

Many of the people living in Dakota Territory wanted better laws and better law enforcement. They also wanted to be able to elect their own governor and other state officials. Their goal was finally realized in 1889 when President Harrison signed a bill dividing Dakota Territory into the states of North Dakota and South Dakota. They could draw up strong laws and see that they were obeyed. In short, they could govern the state as they wanted to. There were, however, two things that they could not do. They could not do anything that would go against the United States Constitution, and they could not do anything that was not provided for in the North Dakota Constitution.

The North Dakota State Constitution

It might surprise you to learn that the North Dakota State Constitution was not written by a North Dakotan. The first draft, in fact, was written by James Bradley Thayer of the Harvard Law

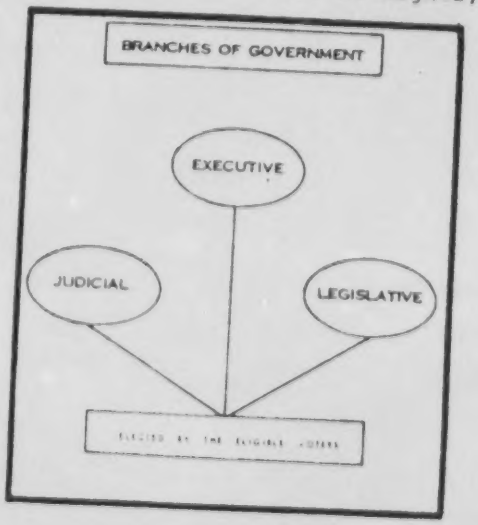
The old Capitol burns in 1930. Soon after, the new one was constructed. (SHSND)

School, in Massachusetts. While many changes were made, the State Constitution follows very closely the one he suggested.

It might also surprise you to learn that Mr. Thayer was asked to write the constitution by the chairman of the Northern Pacific Railroad, not by the North Dakota Legislature.

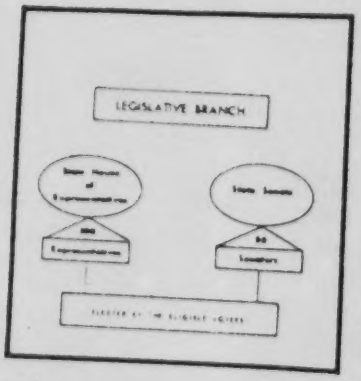
It should not surprise you to learn that the State Constitution is generally considered to be a very weak one. Several attempts have been made to strengthen it,but none of these attempts have been completely successful. In spite of its weaknesses, the State Constitution has set the standard for years of sound and honest government.

Our State Constitution is made up of several parts. First, it has a Preamble, which tells why it was written. Second,there is a Bill of Rights, which lists the many rights and privileges the government cannot take away from the people. The third part describes the three branches of government; Legislative, Executive and Judicial. We will take a close look at these three branches of government.



Duties

The purpose of the Legislature is to make laws. It is divided into two parts, the House of Representatives and the Senate. The House of Representatives and Senate are in session about 80 days at the beginning of every odd numbered year.



There are 100 members in the House of Representatives. They are elected for two year terms. A representative must be at least 18 years of age and have lived in the state for one year. The person who heads the House of Representatives is called the Speaker of the House. He presides over the meetings and keeps the business going according to certain rules. He is elected by the other members of the House. The House also elects a chief clerk and an assistant clerk, who have the duty to keep a complete record of all business.

There are 50 members in the North Dakota Senate. Their term is four years. A senator must also be 18 years of age and have lived in the state one year. The lieutenant governor presides over all meetings of the Senate. He can only vote, however, if there is a tie. The Senate elects one of its members to be the president pro tempore. This person conducts the meetings of the Senate if the lieutenant governor is not there.

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The North Dakota Senate has 50 members. (TD-SHD)

The North Dakota House of Representatives has 100 members. (TD-SHD)

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A Bill and a Law

Before a new law can be passed, a bill must first be introduced into the House of Representatives or the Senate.

Let us follow a bill through the Senate and House to see how it becomes a law. Let us make it a bit more interesting by supposing that it is your bill and that you have asked your local senator (or representative) to introduce it. Your bill would be written on a form like the one on the next page. Perhaps you could copy the form on a sheet of paper and actually write a bill. What law would you want to see passed?

Once your bill is written, your senator would introduce it to other senators by giving it to the chief clerk. The title of the bill is then read to all of the senators. This is called the "first reading". The bill is then sent to one of the Senate committees, where it is studied and then discussed.

The committee will decide whether or not the bill would make a good law. If the committee thinks it is a good bill, they will recommend that the other senators vote for the bill. If the committee thinks it is a bad bill, they will recommend that the other senators vote against the bill. The committee might also amend, or change the bill if they think some changes would make it better. They might also send the bill back to the Senate for a vote without any recommendation at all.

Once the bill is returned to the Senate, it is given a "second reading". The senators then discuss the bill and try to decide whether it should be passed. A vote is taken, and, if enough senators vote for the bill, it is passed.

Forty-sixth
Legislative Assembly
of North Dakota

SENATE BILL No. 6828

Introduced by

Senator Jones

Representative Bell

Representative Browne

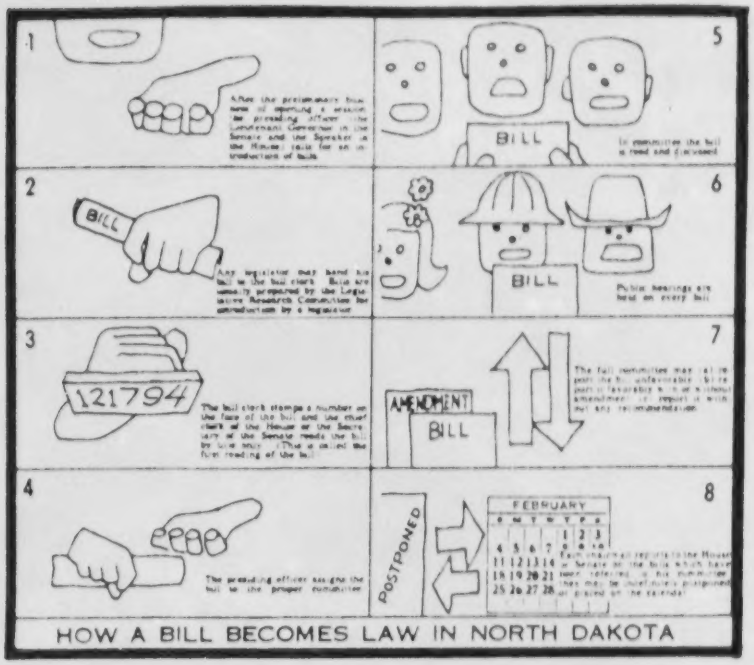
Assigned To Committee On
SENATE
HOUSE
PASS
Committee Report IND.
SENATE DO PASS POST AMEND
DO NOT
HOUSE DO PASS PASS AMEND
Legislative Action on Amendments
SENATE ADOPTED NOT ADOPTED
HOUSE ADOPTED NOT ADOPTED
3rd Reading and Final Passage
SENATE PASS FAIL
HOUSE PASS FAIL

A BILL for an Act providing an appropriation for publication of North Dakota history textbooks and their subsequent distribution to elementary schools.

BE IT ENACTED BY THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY OF THE STATE OF NORTH DAKOTA:

SECTION 1. APPROPRIATION FOR SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION TO PUBLISH AND DISTRIBUTE TEXTBOOKS.) There is hereby appropriated out of any moneys in the general fund in the state treasury, not otherwise appropriated, the sum of $68,000.00, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to the superintendent of public instruction for the purpose of publishing and distributing to all elementary schools a series of paperback textbooks concerning the history and current status of North Dakota, for the biennium beginning July 1, 1979, and ending June 30, 1981.

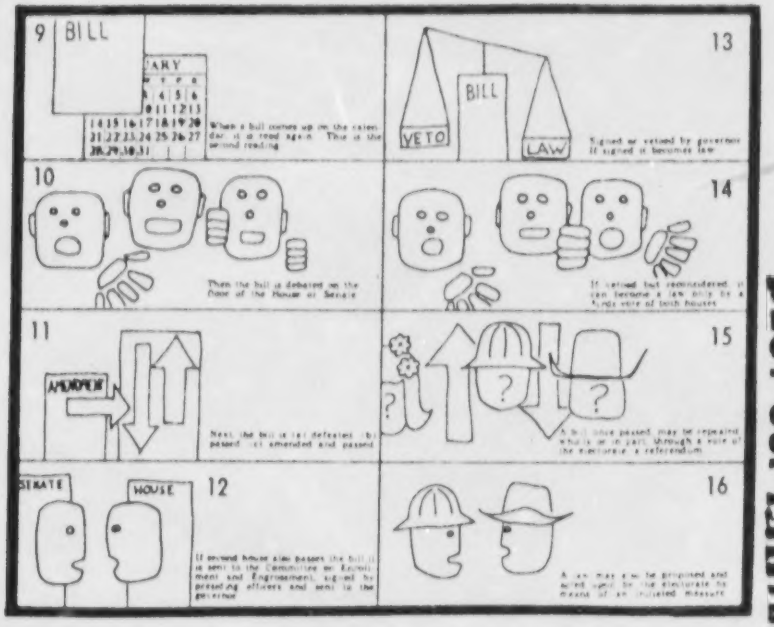
This is a sample of a legislative bill.



HOW A BILL BECOMES LAW IN NORTH DAKOTA

Meanwhile, the House of Representatives would also have been discussing your bill. If your bill also passes the House of Representatives, it is sent to the governor for his approval.

If the governor thinks your bill is a good one, he will sign it, and it becomes a law. If the governor doesn't like your bill, he will veto it. After a veto by the governor, the members of the Senate and the House can consider the bill again. If they still think it is a good bill, they can make it a law by voting on it again. In this "final" vote to override the governor's veto, at least two-thirds of the senators and representatives must vote for the bill.



There are other ways that laws can be made. A law can be passed by using the initiative. Here the people can request that a certain law be passed. They do this by signing a paper called a petition. The petition describes the law and also has places for signatures. If about 12,500 people sign a petition (2% of the persons listed in the last federal census) the voters decide at the next election whether or not to make it a law. If a majority of people vote yes, the initiative becomes a law.

The people can also get rid of a law that they do not like. They do this by using the referendum. People sign their names to a petition that says a

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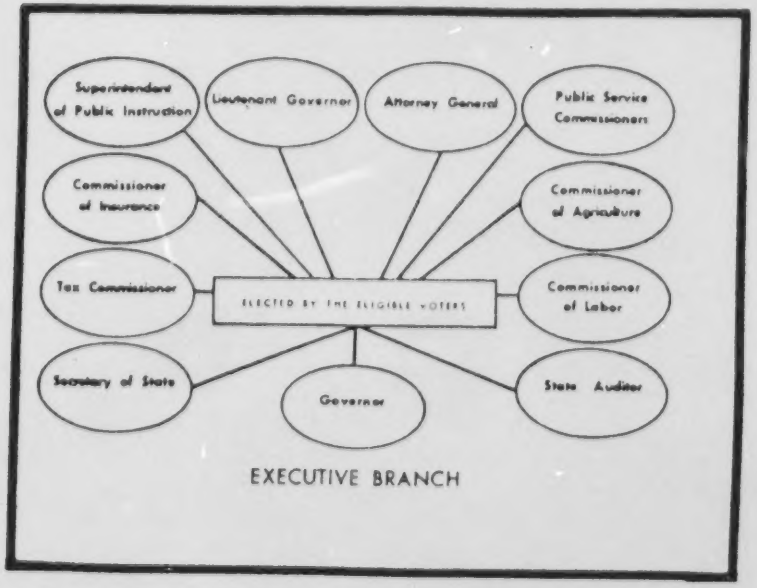
certain law should be removed. The same number of signatures are needed as for the initiative. The referendum is then voted on at the next statewide election. If a majority of the people vote against the law, it is removed.

Our Capitol, the "skyscraper of the prairies." (TD-SHD)

THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH OF GOVERNMENT

Duties

Once a law has been passed by the Legislative Branch it is up to the Executive Branch of the government to enforce the law. Let us use your bill as an example. If it has passed the Senate and the House and has been signed by the governor, your bill would become a law. It is now up to the governor and other members of the Executive Branch to make sure people obey it. Suppose that your bill calls for an extra school holiday to observe George Washington's birthday. The superintendent of public instruction must see to it that all teachers know about the law and that all schools



EXECUTIVE BRANCH

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observe the holiday. If your bill was about taxes, instead of education, it would have been up to the state tax commissioner to enforce it. Let us take a look at each of the officials who are in the Executive Branch of government.

Officials of the Executive Branch

The Governor

The governor of North Dakota must be 30 years old, a citizen of the United States, have voted in North Dakota and lived in the state at least five years before the election. His term of office is four years.

Because the Legislature is in session only 80 days every two years, the governor is given the full-time job of carrying out the laws and running the government on a day-to-day basis.

One of the duties of the governor is to make appointments to the many boards and commissions which help run the government. The governor is also a member of many of these boards.

The governor can also send messages to the Legislature recommending that certain laws be passed. He approves or vetoes bills that the Legislature has passed. He can also call special meetings of the Legislature between their regular meetings if needed.

The Constitution also provides that the governor be "commander-in-chief of all military and naval forces" of the state. North Dakota, however, has never found it necessary to have a navy, even though it is provided for in the Constitution. We do have an Army and Air National Guard.

The North Dakota Governor's Mansion is located on the Capitol grounds. (TD-SHD)

Lieutenant Governor

The lieutenant governor and the governor run for office as a team, much like the president and vice president of the United States. The lieutenant governor helps the governor in many ways. He fills in if the governor is out of the state and becomes governor if the governor dies. He also works with the governor to get laws passed.

Secretary of State

The secretary of state is the chief clerk for the state. He is in charge of all the records of the Legislature and files all official acts of the governor and other official papers including the Constitution. The secretary of state puts the Official Seal of North Dakota on all official documents. He is also responsible for all state-wide elections. It is his job to see that elections are fair and are conducted properly.

The secretary of state is also the state athletic commissioner and supervises all professional sports events held in the state.

State Auditor

The state auditor checks over all the bills (sometimes called vouchers) to be paid by the state. If a bill is a proper one, the auditor issues a warrant that says the money should be paid. The auditor also keeps a check on the money spent by the different departments of state government.

State Treasurer

The treasurer receives and takes care of all state money. He pays out money when directed to do so by the state auditor. The treasurer keeps track of the amount of money left in various accounts and makes regular reports.

Attorney General

The attorney general is the legal advisor to the governor and other state officials. He is the lawyer for the state in all lawsuits in which the state is involved. The attorney general is a member of certain boards and commissions and is also involved in the licensing of certain businesses, such as theaters and liquor stores.

Tax Commissioner

The tax commissioner is in charge of collecting all state taxes. These taxes include the income tax, sales tax, gasoline tax and several other taxes.

Commissioner of Insurance

All insurance companies doing business in North Dakota must obey our insurance laws. It is the job of the commissioner of insurance to see that they do. He is also the person who buys the insurance policies which protect the state. This

commissioner also appoints the state fire marshall.

Commissioner of Agriculture

The commissioner of agriculture issues licenses to dairies, poultry raisers, nurseries, and bee keepers. He also supervises the use of poisons to kill insects or weeds.

The commissioner's most important job is to act as a spokesman for the farmers of the state and to try to improve conditions for farming, the largest industry in the state.

Commissioner of Labor

The commissioner of labor tries to improve the working and living conditions of workers in the state. He also enforces laws such as minimum wage laws, child labor laws and equal pay laws.

Superintendent of Public Instruction

Keeping an eye on the education of the youth of North Dakota is the job of the superintendent of public instruction. The superintendent helps manage money for schools and provides advice and assistance to grade schools and high schools in the state.

Public Service Commission

The public service commission is made up of three commissioners. They are responsible for overseeing all transportation companies in the state. They supervise the bus lines, railroads, airlines and the trucking industry. Rates for hauling freight or passengers can be raised or lowered only with the approval of the public service commission. They also regulate the rates charged by public utilities, such as power and telephone companies.

State Boards

The executive branch of our government also contains a large number of state boards. One of these boards is called the Industrial Commission. This agency runs the State Mill and Elevator which buys grain from farmers, stores it, mills it or sells it to other millers. It also runs the Bank of North Dakota. North Dakota is the only state in the United States that has a state bank.

Another state board is the Parole Board. This board decides if a prisoner can leave the state penitentiary before his sentence is up. Other state boards issue licenses to doctors, lawyers, barbers and other professionals.

Other State Agencies

There are more than one hundred small agencies and boards which help state government in all of its many responsibilities. A full list is printed in Governing North Dakota by Lloyd Omdahl and Boyd Wright. A brief description of some of the larger

agencies follows.

State Highway Department

This department is responsible for building and maintaining all state highways. This is by far the largest single state agency. It is run by a highway commissioner who is appointed by the governor.

Clearing snow from the highways is one of the jobs of the State Highway Department (LT)

National Guard

The National Guard has two basic missions. It provides trained soldiers in time of war or national emergency and it also provides protection within the state when called upon to do so by the governor.

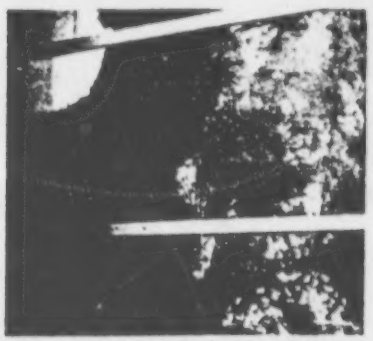
The North Dakota Air National Guard protects our state and country (NDANG)

State Health Department

This department is run by the state health officer who is appointed by the governor. The Health Department is responsible for the protection, preservation and promotion of public health.

Radio Communications Department

The Radio Communications Department has a teletypewriter communications system that is connected to every sheriff's office, all highway patrol offices, the State Crime Bureau and other agencies related to crime control. Law enforcement personnel in one area can contact officers in any area of the state in just seconds to trace stolen cars, get information out on "missing" or "wanted" people, or to inform other officers of a crime that had just been committed. The Radio Communications Department also operates an emergency assistance system so that stranded motorists or persons needing ambulances can obtain assistance without delay.



The State Historical Society of North Dakota helps preserve history (TD-SHD)

The North Dakota Parks Department helps preserve our natural resources (TD-SHD)

THE JUDICIAL BRANCH OF THE GOVERNMENT

Duties

Do you remember that the Legislative Branch makes laws and the Executive Branch sees that the laws are carried out or obeyed? We now come to the third division of the government, the Judicial Branch.

The Judicial Branch is made up of a number of courts. The people that are in charge of courts are called judges. These judges decide what people's rights are under the laws that have been passed. All judges are elected by the people.

A judge is like a referee in a basketball game. He has to decide if a person is playing by the rules. If he decides someone has not been playing by the rules he gives a penalty.

Laws are broken by someone often. Personal troubles happen every day. Sometimes people cannot settle their problems without going to court. When this happens the judge decides who broke the law and decides what the penalty will be. What the judge decides is called the verdict.

There are several kinds of courts in North Dakota. There are municipal (city) courts, county courts, district courts and the Supreme Court.

Municipal Courts

The lowest courts in our state are the municipal courts. These courts are run by municipal judges who are elected by voters in each city. These courts decide things like traffic tickets, disturbing the peace and other minor offenses. In 1979 there were 180 municipal courts in North Dakota.

County Courts

The next type of courts are the county courts. All counties in North Dakota have such a court. Most of the work they do concerns the property of people who have died. These courts make sure that this property is given to the right people. They also judge certain money matters and crimes called misdemeanors. Misdemeanors are minor crimes like hitting someone or stealing a small item.

District Courts

The next highest courts are the district courts. District courts decide larger money matters and serious crimes like robbery and murder. They also hear appeals from the county courts. If a person does not think he got a fair trial in the county court, he can appeal to the district court for a new trial. There are six district courts in North Dakota.

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The Supreme Court

The Supreme Court is the highest court in the state. The Supreme Court's main job is to decide if the county courts and district courts are doing a good job. Appeals from district courts are heard by the Supreme Court. If the Supreme Court finds an error, it can have a case tried over again, or it can change the verdict. The Supreme Court can also remove a law passed by the Legislature if the law is not permitted by the State Constitution.

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There are five members on the North Dakota Supreme Court (NDSC)

POLITICAL PARTIES

The Executive, Legislative and Judicial Branches are the constitutional parts of the state government. But the real power in a state lies in its political parties. A political party's main goal is to get people from their party elected to the various state offices.

What do political parties do in North Dakota? Each political party takes a stand on the important issues and decides what should be done to make the state a better place to live and work.

North Dakota has always had at least two major political parties. These have usually been the Republican Party and the Democratic Party. Through these political parties, the people of North Dakota have always been able to hear at least two different points of view on any issue that has come up.

Many times a third party will be started because people do not like what the other two political parties are doing. This has happened a few times in North Dakota.

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COUNTY GOVERNMENT

Duties

Which is older, the state of North Dakota or Pembina County?

Did you answer the state of North Dakota? You are wrong if you did! In 1867 Pembina County became a county in Dakota Territory. North Dakota did not become a state until 1889. Let's look at county government to see how it is different from state government.

Counties are really part of state government. The purpose of a county government is to carry out the orders of the State Constitution and the State Legislature as they affect people within its boundaries. In order to do this, the county officials must travel around their county. People living in the county must also travel to the "county seat", the capital city of the county. The county courthouse is located in the county seat.

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This is the Wells County Courthouse at Fessenden. (SHSND)

North Dakota needed many counties and county seats years ago because there were no cars and most people could not travel quickly. The counties were small so that the trip to the county seat could be made in a day or two by horses. If the counties had been made too large, it could have taken a whole week to make a round trip to the county seat. This would have made county government and state government less helpful to the people.

Today people can travel much faster so many people are in favor of combining some counties. They feel this would reduce the cost of government and lower taxes.

Since the county is an agent of state government, it cannot pass laws like the state can. It can only see that the state laws are implemented and obeyed. The state government has said that the county can do the following: preserve the peace. collect county and state taxes, provide for the poor, register titles to land, build roads and bridges, issue licenses of various kinds, enforce certain health rules, and handle the property of people who have died.

In order to do these things, several officials and a Board of County Commissioners are elected.

This museum in Richland County is another part of county government. (TD-SHD)

County Officials

The County Commissioners

The Board of County Commissioners in North Dakota is usually made up of three to five members. Their work consists of supervising county property, overseeing all county money matters and determining taxes. The county commissioners are not full-time employees of the county but they do attend many meetings. Some of their other duties include supervising the building and maintaining of county roads, establishing voting precincts and appointing people to advisory boards. The county commissioners cannot make new laws. They can only see that the laws of the state are obeyed.

The County Auditor

The county auditor is the chief clerk and bookkeeper for the county. The auditor supervises the handling of county money and keeps all records involved in this activity. He also takes care of all official documents belonging to the county.

The County Clerk of Court

The clerk of court takes care of court records and helps in selecting people to serve on juries when there is a court trial.

The County Treasurer

The treasurer receives and keeps safe all money received from taxes and other sources. This money is paid out on the order of the Board of Commissioners.

The County Sheriff

The sheriff's main duty is to preserve law and order throughout the county. He is the county "policeman". The sheriff is in charge of the county jail, including the feeding and transporting

of prisoners. Other duties are notifying people when they must do something under the law and collecting taxes if people refuse to pay them.

The County Judge

The county judge presides over all cases tried in county court. The duties of the county judge also include reading wills or distributing the property of people who have died, issuing marriage licenses and marrying people. He is also involved in the legal process of seeing that persons with mental handicaps are treated fairly and correctly.

The County Superintendent of Schools

The county superintendent of schools is in charge of any schools in the county which do not have their own superintendent. These schools are, for the most part, one-room rural schools. The county superintendent also helps the state superintendent of public instruction collect attendance information and distribute funds.

The State's Attorney

This official is called the "state's" attorney rather than the "county's" attorney because he gives advice to the county, township and school district officials as to their powers and duties under the laws of the state. The state's attorney also conducts investigations for the county and brings to trial people who have violated the laws of the state.

The County Coroner

The county coroner holds inquests to determine the cause of violent or mysterious deaths in the county. If he suspects foul play (perhaps even murder), he appoints a jury of three voters to check into it. This jury then reports its findings

to the state's attorney.

The Register of Deeds

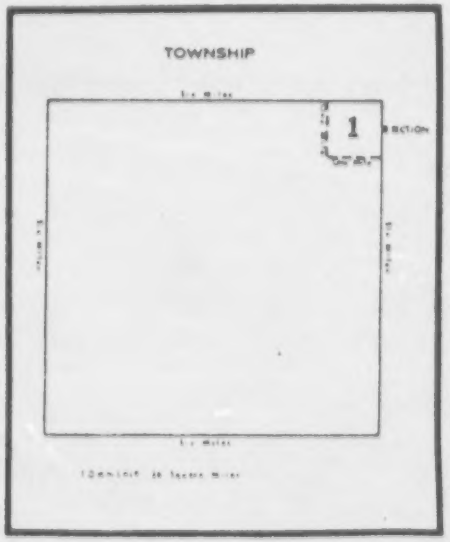
The register of deeds keeps the records of all legal documents which show ownership of property.

The County Surveyor

The county surveyor conducts all land surveys for the county. At the request of the county commissioners he lays out the roads that are to be built.

Township Government

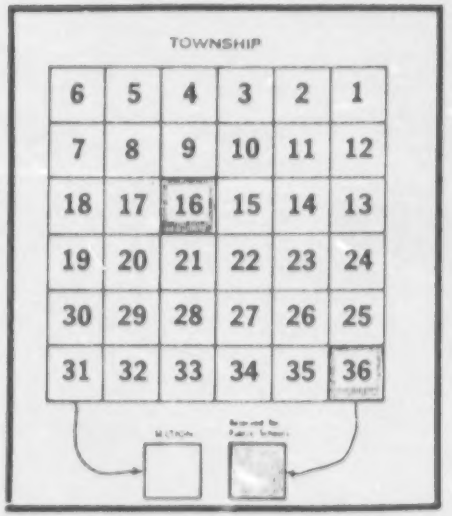
North Dakota is like the rest of the country in that it is laid out much like a giant checkerboard. All the land is set up in six mile squares, called townships. They are set up this way so that land can be located when it is bought or sold. Each of the townships is numbered.



Each township contains 36 sections of land, each section is one mile square and has 640 acres in it. These sections are also numbered. All sections numbered 16 and 36 have been set aside as public lands owned by the state. Any money that is made from this land goes to support the public schools.

A township may

also be a unit of government. The people living in any township may vote to organize a township form of government. The township officials include three supervisors, a clerk, an assessor, a treasurer and two constables. The functions of the township government are quite limited. It can maintain township roads and set the value of real estate for tax purposes. Very few other functions are served by this form of government.



School District Government

The school district is another type of government organization. A school board, consisting of five to nine members, is elected by the people who live in the school district. It is the school board's job to operate the school. They are responsible for hiring the teachers and other staff members. They are also responsible for erecting and maintaining school buildings and carrying out state school laws.

A school district may include both city and farm areas. It may be all in one city or, in some cases, may just contain farm areas.

CITY GOVERNMENT

Duties

When many people live close together they have certain common needs that must be furnished. They want such things as police and fire protection, good streets and sidewalks, a water and sewer system and provisions for the health care of the people.

State government gives such a "community of people" the right to organize a city government to provide these needs. A city government can be organized by 50 or more people if a majority of them vote to do so.

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Voters in the new city select one of three forms of city government: The Mayor and Council, the City Commission or the City Manager.

Mayor and Council

The Mayor and Council plan is most common in North Dakota. Under this type of government the mayor and members of the city council are elected to four year terms. A municipal judge is also elected. All other city officials, including the treasurer, auditor, assessor, city attorney and city engineer, are appointed by the mayor. The mayor presides over meetings of the city council and can veto any ordinance (city law) passed by the council.

The members of the city council are called aldermen and represent assigned sections of the city. The council, along with the mayor, meets each month to discuss city business and to pass city ordinances.

City Commission

Under the City Commission plan, five commissoners are elected by the people for four year terms. The entire control of the city is put in their hands. These five people form the Board of City Commissioners, who appoint other people to help run the city. Each of the five commissioners is responsible for one or more city departments. The commissioner responsible for keeping the streets in good shape would be the street commissioner, while another may be the fire commissioner. They meet as often as needed but at least once each month.

City Manager

Minot is the only city in North Dakota with the City Manager plan of government. Under this plan a small number of elected aldermen determine the policies for the city. They hire an expert in city affairs, called the city manager, to carry them out.

The city manager has the power to appoint and dismiss city officials. He also sets the salary of city employees and defines their duties.

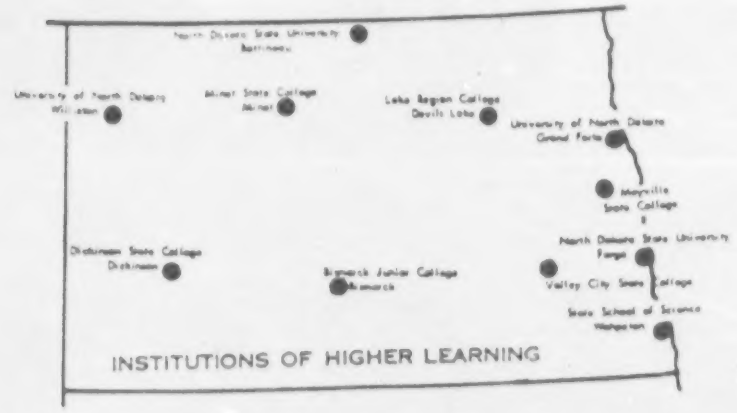
One duty of city government is the upkeep of public buildings. (TD-SHD)

STATE INSTITUTIONS

State institutions are places that handle special problems or provide special services to the people. One of the basic jobs of any state government is to care for the people who live in that state. Sometimes people are not able to provide the services they need. When this happens the state steps in and sets up an institution to provide these services. These services can then be used by anyone living in the state. Many times these services are free, but sometimes they are so costly that the citizens who use them must help pay for them. This is the case with universities and colleges.

Colleges and Universities

State colleges and universities provide for the education of those who want to continue their education beyond high school. A person can get the



North Dakota State University is at Fargo.

training and education needed to do almost anything at these colleges and universities. He or she can become a doctor, teacher, plumber or electrician. Education and training is very important, so North Dakota has many fine colleges.

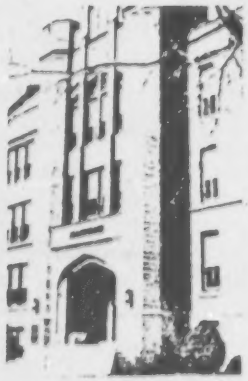
There are eleven colleges in North Dakota

The University of North Dakota is at Grand Forks.

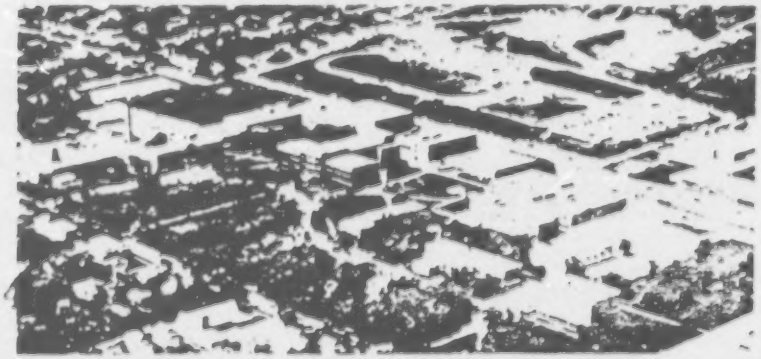
North Dakota State School of Science

Mayville State College

Valley City State College



Dickinson State College



Minot State College

which receive at least part of their support from the state government.

The state board of higher education meets regularly to oversee the operations of the state colleges and universities. The board is made up of seven members who are appointed for seven year terms by the governor.

North Dakota Heritage Center

The new North Dakota Heritage Center is the place where people learn about the history of the state. This large building is being built in 1979-1980 and will be the home for the State Historical Society of North Dakota. Inside its two wings will be a museum that displays items from North Dakota's past, a library and archives filled with books and documents, and offices for the staff. The Heritage Center will cost over $9 million. Many people gave money to help pay for it.

The goal of the State Historical Society of North Dakota is to preserve the state's history. Divisions of the State Historical Society operate

The North Dakota Heritage Center was being built in 1979. (SHSND)

historic sites in the state and help people save useful buildings that would otherwise be torn down. A magazine about North Dakota's history is also published here. Many other activities go on in the Heritage Center.

When the Heritage Center is finally completed, it will take another ten years to get the permanent displays put together. In the meantime, things in the museum wing will change nearly every year!

The North Dakota Heritage Center is run by the North Dakota Historical Board, one of the boards of the Executive Branch.

State School for the Blind

This school was started in 1908,and is now located in Grand Forks. It was started to provide a school for people who cannot see. The regular

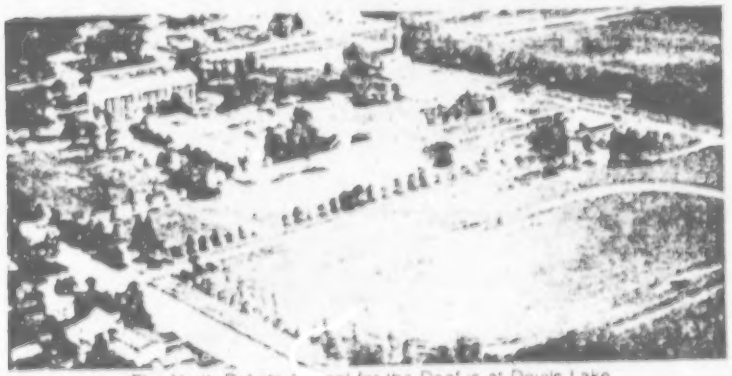
The North Dakota School for the Blind is at Grand Forks.

schools in the state are not able to provide the special help these persons need to take care of themselves and to get good jobs. At this school, the blind students learn to read using a special kind of print called Braille. They also learn to

take care of themselves so they can live just like people with sight. In short, they learn to become worthwhile citizens. When they leave the school they can live much like everyone else.

State School for the Deaf

This school was started to help people who cannot hear. It is located in Devils Lake. The purpose of this institution is to provide special instruction for people who are deaf or hard-of-hearing. It provides both regular instruction and job training.



The North Dakota School for the Deaf is at Devils Lake.

North Dakota State Library

The State Library was established in 1907. After 1981 it will be located in the Liberty Memorial Building on the State Capitol grounds.

In addition to serving as the library for state government,the State Library provides information and loans of books and other library materials to all citizens of the state. Your school or public librarian can provide detailed information

about the State Library.

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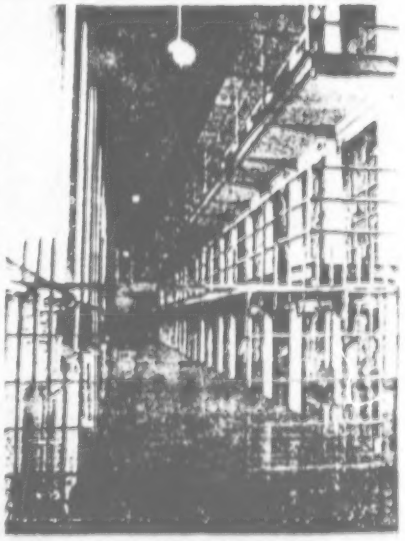
Liberty Memorial Building is located on the Capitol Grounds in Bismarck.

State Penitentiary



This institution was started in 1886, three years before North Dakota became a state. It is located in Bismarck. People are sent here because they have broken a state law. A penitentiary helps the state in three ways. First of all, lawbreakers put in a penitentiary cannot break any more laws or do harm to any people of the state. Secondly, others will avoid breaking the law if they know lawbreakers are sent to the peni-

in a penitentiary lawbreakers may learn new jobs so they can become good citizens again.

State Industrial School

This school was started in 1903 and is located at Mandan. Its purpose is to help people under 21 years of age who have gotten into trouble. Also, children may be sent there if their parents can no longer control them at home. Children who are sent there receive regular school instruction, but they are supervised 24 hours a day and are not free to go wherever they wish.

The State Industrial School is at Mandan.

State Hospital

Persons who have serious emotional, mental or social problems can get special help at the State Hospital. The State Hospital has specially trained doctors, nurses and teachers who can help them learn to deal with the problems of day-to-day

living. The State Hospital was started in 1885 and is located in Jamestown, near the James River.

The State Hospital is at Jamestown

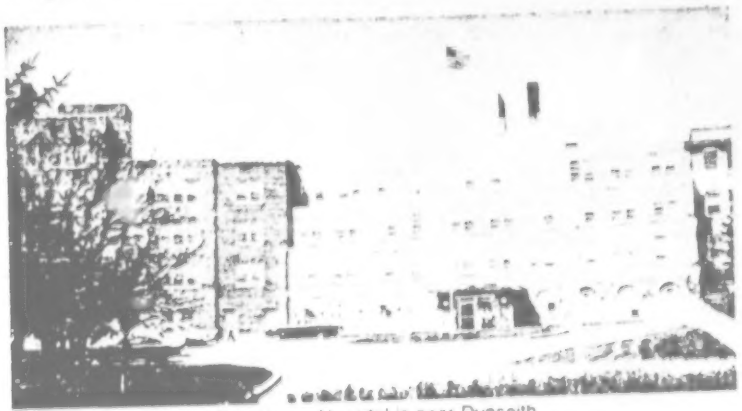
The State Hospital also helps persons who use drugs and alcohol. Too many drugs or too much alcohol can destroy people's lives unless they get help to overcome their problems.

State School for the Mentally Retarded

The State School for the Mentally Retarded serves those persons who are so mentally retarded

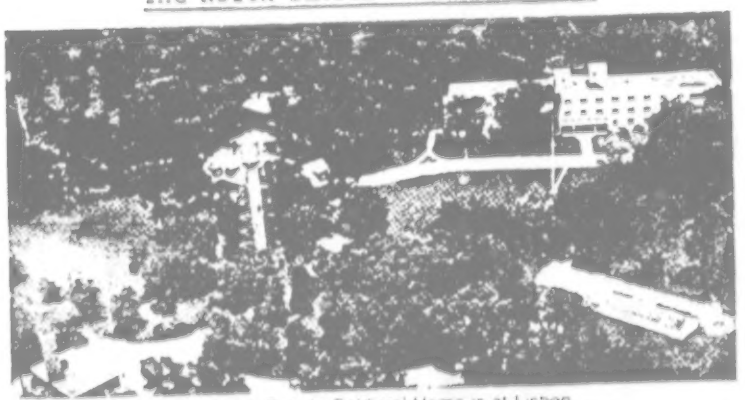
The State School for the Mentally Retarded is at Grafton

that it is impossible for their families to take care of them. This institution attempts to instruct and care for these people and to help them learn to take care of themselves and to learn a job. The school was started in 1904 and is located in Grafton. Another part of the school, which cares for severely handicapped persons, is San Haven State Hospital located near Dunseith.



San Haven Hospital is near Dunseith

The North Dakota Soldier's Home



The North Dakota Soldiers' Home is at Lisbon

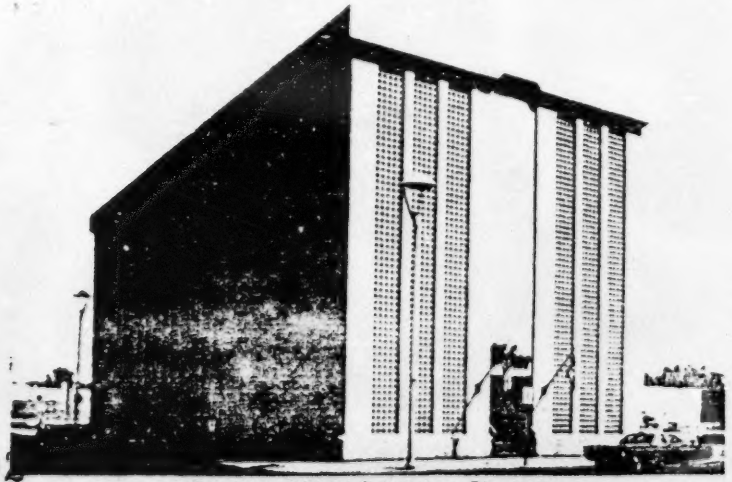
The North Dakota Soldier's Home is located at Lisbon. Its purpose is to provide a home for men and women who have been in the armed forces and who are now too sick, too old or too poor to take care of themselves.

State Mill and Elevator

The State Mill and Elevator was started in 1919. It buys grain from North Dakota farmers. The grain is then stored or milled into flour or sold to other millers. The State Mill and Elevator is in Grand Forks.

Bank of North Dakota

The Bank of North Dakota was also started in 1919 and is located in downtown Bismarck. The Bank of North Dakota makes loans to other banks, to businesses and to individuals. It receives deposits from individuals, from the state government and from other banks. Many college students get loans from the Bank of North Dakota.



The Bank of North Dakota is at Bismarck.

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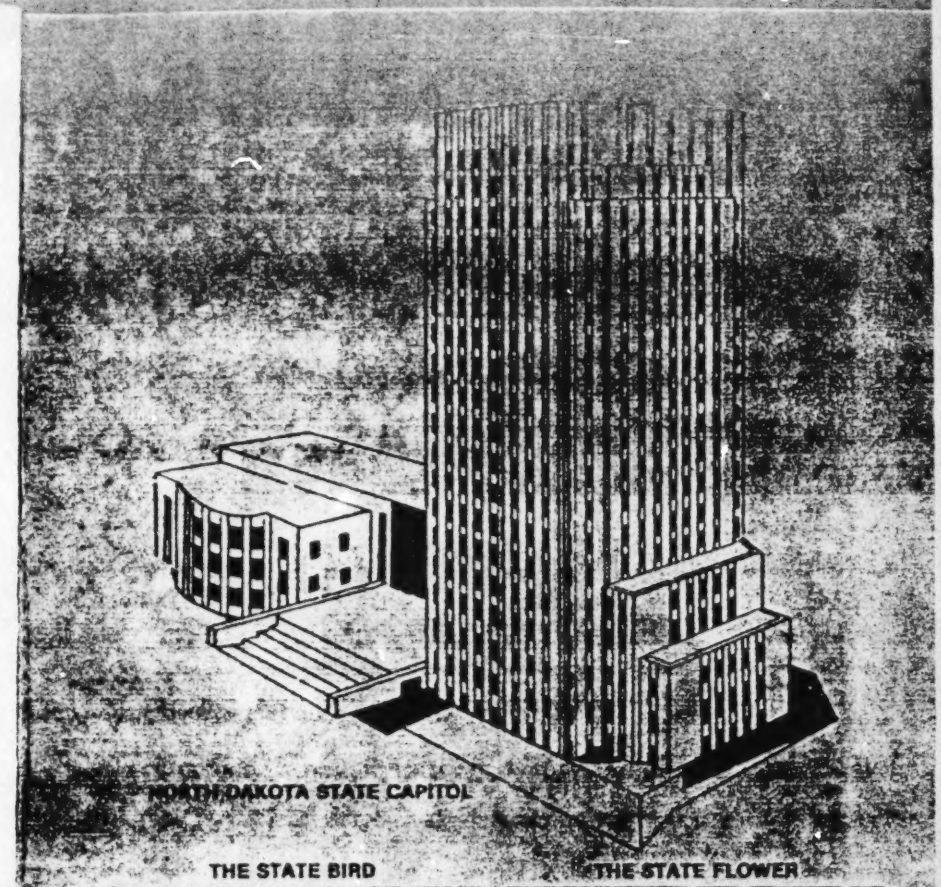

NORTH DAKOTA STATE CAPITOL

THE STATE BIRD

THE STATE FLOWER